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SECOND UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES:

Preparatory process for the Conference

# LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES AND HEALTH IN THE 1990s
# CHALLENGES AND PROPOSALS FOR ACTION

Contribution by the World Health Organization

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# LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES AND HEALTH IN THE 1990s

# CHALLENGES AND PROPOSALS FOR ACTION

A paper by the World Health Organization in preparation for the Second United Nations Conference on LDCs

## THE CHALLENGE

As the consequence of widespread and dramatic deterioriation in the last ten years of the economic and social situation of the majority of people living in the Least Developed Countries, a large proportion of the population, particularly in rural areas, is still without the barest necessities of life such as safe drinking water, hygienic shelter, essential health care, adequate food and a minimum level of economic productivity. Health services in recent years in LDCs have declined in quality, particularly at peripheral levels, and there no progress has been made in reducing social inequity, particularly between urban and rural areas, in the availability, accessibility and quality of health care provided.

As LDCs enter the 1990s there is an urgent need for action on multiple fronts that will lay the foundation for future changes - changes that can bring about growth and the reduction of poverty.

The essential building blocks of this foundation are the children, women and men of the LDCs. Growth and development starts with and ends with people.

READEX

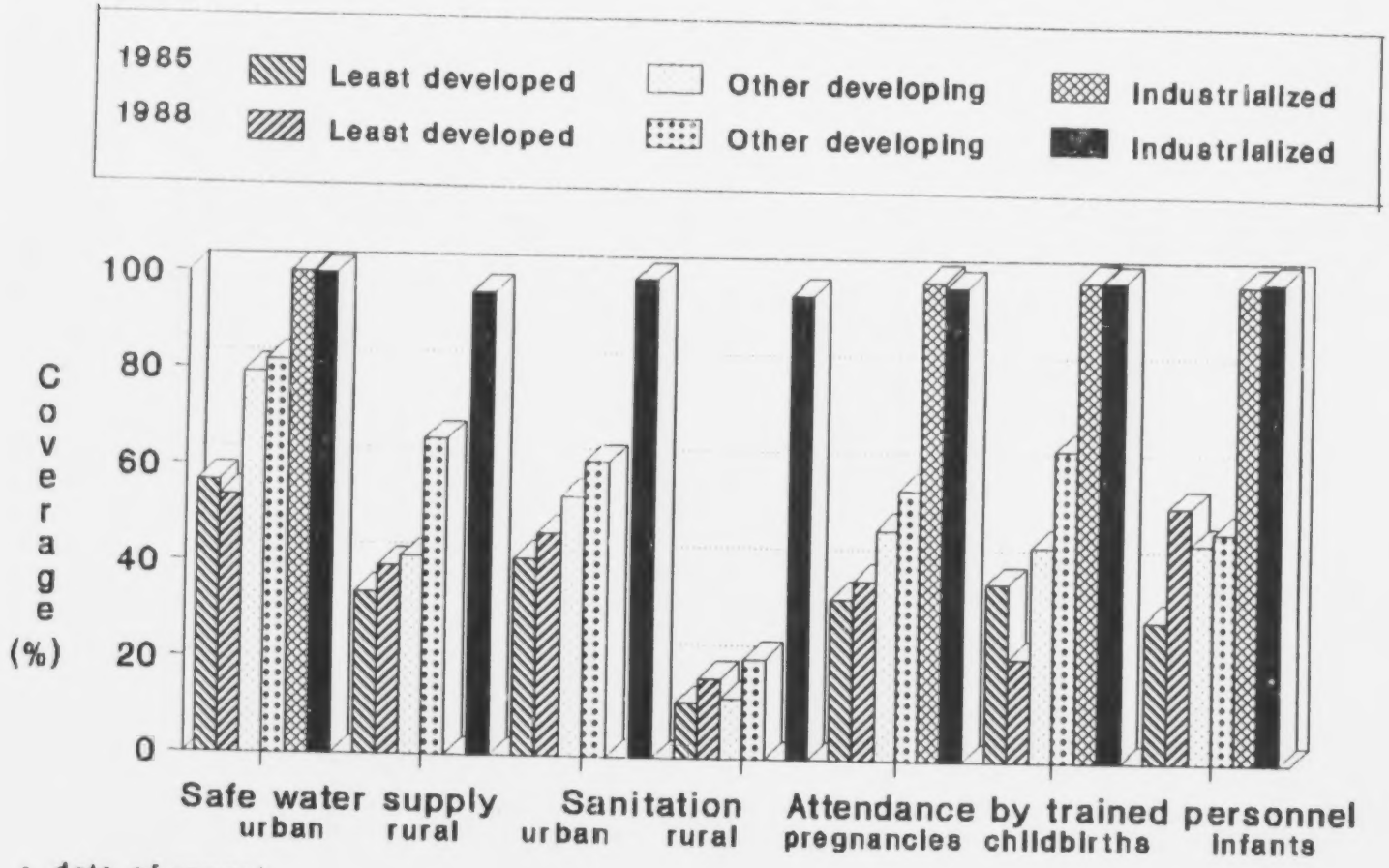
They must be active partners in their country's quest for future growth and development. To do so they must be healthy, well-nourished, educated and sheltered. The challenge of the 1990s for the LDCs and for the world as a whole will be to meet the basic needs of these children, women and men in health, nutrition, education and housing.

Meeting basic needs in health continues to elude LDCs. During the 1980s there has been a decrease in the supply of and an increase in the demand for health services. This imbalance is unacceptable. The gap in health status (as shown by selected indicators (see graph overleaf)) between LDCs and other developing countries on the one hand and developed countries on the other reflects this. To close this gap, it is clear that the 1990s call for considerable investment in health in least developed countries.

In the decade ahead the concepts and principles of primary health care, as envisaged by governments in Alma-Ata in 1978 and recently reaffirmed at Riga, USSR in March 1988, remain viable. The essential elements of primary health care include:

1) information and education concerning health
2) promotion of food availability and proper nutrition
3) water and sanitation
4) maternal and child health
5) immunization

# Weighted average of selected indicators by level of development of countries 1985* and 1988*




* date of report

6) prevention and control of endemic diseases

7) treatment of common diseases and injuries

8) provision of essential drugs.

The principles behind this approach include:

1) equity

2) accessibility to health care by all

3) emphasis on promotion of health and prevention of disease

4) intersectoral action

5) community involvement

6) decentralization of decision-making in health matters

7) integration of health programmes.

In most countries these concepts, and the strategies for attaining them, have been expressed with sufficient clarity and operational detail in national health policies and plans. The challenge for the 1990s is to implement these policies and strategies.

Experience gained in the past ten years with primary health care points specifically to a number of health challenges to be met and indicates the resources required to do so. The first challenge is to ensure a sustained commitment to health development. This will include, among other factors, commitment at the highest level of political leadership to reduce social inequities; commitment of the people to assume greater responsibility for their health; commitment of health professionals to the principles of primary health care.

The second challenge is the need to intensify efforts to strengthen the health infrastructure, based on the principles of primary health care. This will require particular attention to adequate manpower, skills, technology, resources (at each level of care) and referral systems. Particular emphasis is needed at the community and district levels. The effects of population growth and the demand for health care resources are already great and will continue to be so. New diseases such as AIDS, and the recrudescence of old ones such as malaria, influence the existing health infrastructure. Many countries, at all levels of development, do not fully realize or take advantage of the cost-effective measures of the primary health care approach; in many countries, for example, over-concentration on hospital-based care has increased.

The third challenge is to ensure the optimum use of all resources available for health (human, material, technological and financial) and the mobilization of additional ones. There is still a large gap in the spending levels for health between developed and developing countries and, while spending levels alone are not the only measure of efforts needed to improve health levels, there should be a minimum threshold that countries ought to be able to sustain. It is clear that maintaining past gains in health status, especially in least developed countries, will require resource levels of a much higher magnitude that at present. For the majority of countries (at least 65% of the world's population) spending levels on health are within the range of 1%-3% of GNP. Finding new ways to cope with new economic realities requires creativity and political skill in order to increase the participation of individuals and communities, non-governmental organizations and the private sector in a spirit of partnership with governments. Health personnel should be technically qualified, socially motivated and should respond to the people's health and social needs. It is also important to give health workers incentives to

deliver good care economically. Strengthening of health research and development will be a very significant form of support for the implementation of national health strategies.

The fourth challenge is to intensify efforts to strengthen managerial capabilities including measures to ensure sound decisions and policies, with a sharper focus on priorities and targets based on valid information. National capacities for assessing and projecting health needs and tasks on a continuing basis, as well as for developing or reorientating health strategies and programmes, and for the monitoring and evaluating of their progress and outcome, will require considerable strengthening. The capacity of ministries of health to carry out an economic analysis of health choices will need enhancing.

Looking ahead to the coming decade, the real resources required for the health sector and for related health actions will be significantly greater than in the past decade. There is an optimum amount that countries and individuals should spend so as to maximize health improvements, but it is difficult, if not impossible, to quantify with precision that figure. On a world average scale, less than 5% of GNP is spent on health care services, with some countries at close to 12% and others at less than 2%. As a minimum, in the next decade, the percentage of GNP devoted to health should probably be doubled in some countries. Much of this increase should be for previously neglected health problems presenting a heavier socioeconomic burden for society. In the affluent countries, historic rates of economic growth will generate sufficient resources in the future, although even there reforms in delivery and finance systems will be necessary. In the poor and developing countries, a shift in priorities with more emphasis on primary health care would help liberate some

of the resources needed. Reforms of financing and delivery systems would also result in internal resources becoming available for reallocation towards priority health concerns. However, for human development and health levels to increase over the next decade in the least developed countries it will require favourable world economic conditions and major reforms in management, delivery and financing. In addition, LDCs will require adequate additional, external financial assistance for the foreseeable future.

## IMPLEMENTING PRIMARY HEALTH CARE: PROPOSALS FOR ACTION IN THE 1990s

The basic strategic health objectives for the 1990s continue to be the attainment of targets set and adopted by governments at Alma Ata in 1978 and reaffirmed at Riga, USSR in 1988. Detailed analysis of global indicators for monitoring the progress toward the achievement of these targets, based on information provided by the countries themselves, is set out in Annex 1.

Achieving the effective implementation of primary health care requires partnership among least developed countries, the World Health Organization and the members of the international community. It is essential that each partner in this cooperation takes specific responsibilities and action.

### ACTIONS BY THE LDCs

Health should be considered as everyone's business. This will require political commitment at the highest level including ministries of planning and finance as well as the ministries of education and health. An enabling environment that promotes effective and efficient health care delivery

including appropriate incentives and building up a physical infrastructure must be created. This building of capacity and investing in people to improve the delivery of health services will be essential. While developing this capacity, the process of decentralization within the decision-making system to increase responsiveness to the needs of the people and facilitate local participation in planning and implementation of activities should be stressed. While recognizing the special economic characteristics of the health sector, it should be perceived as an economically productive sector and as such should be able to compete for adequate government domestic resources. Finally, having developed the appropriate priorities and strategies, the government should ensure that all external partners collaborate within this framework to ensure that external inputs would best complement domestic expenditure.

## ACTIONS BY DONOR GOVERNMENTS

It must be recognized that LDCs will require adequate additional external financial support on a long-term basis and that fundamental changes in aid modalities for the health sector are required, both to limit LDC dependence and to increase the effectiveness of aid.

International policies could be developed to ensure that both multilateral and bilateral partners work within a common framework to strengthen governments in attaining their health sector priorities. Joint programming by donors in full consultation with the government and in coordination with the World Health Organization would improve aid coordination. In order to improve intersectoral technical cooperation to absorption, local and recurrent cost support should be increased. The role of NGOs in enhancing absorptive capacity should be recognized.

External assistance should be consistent and continuous. Multiple year programming of assistance would help to improve predictability.

## ACTIONS BY WHO

WHO has launched a new initiative aimed at overcoming the obstacles to the effective implementation of primary health care, where the concentration of effort is on countries and peoples in most need.

This initiative, which is country focused, emphasises better integration and coordination of all WHO programmes within a country, together with close alignment of WHO activities with the national priorities in health. It also lays special stress upon the need to support countries in developing an increased capacity to deal with the analytical, management, economic and financial aspects of health strategies.

Inherent in the WHO approach is a commitment by the national authorities of the country concerned to take a fresh and realistic look at their health priorities and available resources, and to do this within the concept of starting from a zero base. The government concerned must be prepared to recast its national health plans, or to vary them, and to reallocate existing resources, if the reappraisal shows this to be necessary.

At the same time, WHO in consultation with the government concerned must commit itself to a re-examination of the allocation pattern of its own resources, with a view to ensuring appropriate redeployment of such resources as required.

The outcome of this process will naturally vary from country to country. However, in most cases it can be anticipated to lead to the development of better integrated, well coordinated and more realistic national health development plans, as well as health systems and infrastructure development, which face up to the realities of the availability of human and financial resources.

In pursuing the new initiative, each of the WHO organizational levels (global, regional and country) has a vital and complementary role to play. While headquarters retains responsibility for overall policy, provides appropriate technical support together with the regional offices, and plays a major role in seeking and coordinating additional resources for the initiative, the regional offices are the crucial focus for the coordination and management of the ongoing activities of the initiative within the countries of their regions. Within each country the role of the WHO representatives (WR), as coordinators of all WHO in-country programmes, is of utmost importance for the success of the new endeavour. WHO is exploring ways of strengthening the capacity of the Office of the WR to support more effectively the ministry of health in technical areas and play a full and active role as coordinator in the international health field. The new initiative, with its emphasis on better integration at country level and on a more effective WHO country office, offers an excellent launch-pad for more effective and mutually beneficial working relationships at country level between WHO and cooperating agencies.

An important result of the activities under the initiative will be an increased capacity for planning, programming and management in the health sector. This will, of course, be of direct benefit to the countries concerned, but it will also provide a guarantee of a greater capacity to absorb, and to use effectively, resources provided, both from other cooperating organizations and WHO.

In summary, the development by the national authorities, of rational, realistic and coherent health plans, taking into account the realities of resource availability, provides a logical framework with which resources will be used more effectively and as part of the overall development process of the country.

Throughout the process described above, the Organization will maintain, at all levels, a close working partnership with multilateral and bilateral development cooperation agencies. Inherent in the new approach is the recognition of the government as the national body responsible for the coordination of external cooperation in the health field and for the integration of such cooperation into a cohesive national plan. WHO will cooperate with ministries in strengthening their capacity in this respect. Emphasis should be placed on the definition of a framework for cooperation which would be based on the national health plan and would include an analysis of the conditions required by all partners involved as well as an evaluation scheme. Governments should be supported in ensuring that all external partners then operate within that framework. The objective is to mobilize appropriate national and external resources to fill any identified resource gap and thus ensure that priority programmes and activities are financed. WHO should

support governments in developing an analytical ability to forecast resource needs, to justify these needs, to predict resource availability and to assess the impact and effectiveness of cooperation received. The Organization should also support governments in their efforts to mobilize resources and coordinate aid by such means as helping to develop a health cooperation strategy and participating in the relevant negotiations, and through the provision of technical and logistic support for meetings with the financing agencies.

This initiative for intensified cooperation with countries should result in cooperation in health being more effective, efficient, timely and appropriate to the problems of each country. There is, at present, no other choice in the global endeavour to meet the challenge posed by the persistance of high mortality and preventable morbidity in least developed countries. Through a better integrated and more sharply focused approach to primary health care implementation by countries, WHO and the international community will open the door to significant advances in the health status of the peoples in least developed countries.

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ANNEX 1

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Immunization of infants (% coverage for 1985* - 1988*) | | | | | | | | Immunization of pregnant women tetanus (2d)# | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DPT | | Measles | | Poliomyelitis | | BCG | | | |
| | 1985 | 1988 | 1985 | 1988 | 1985 | 1988 | 1985 | 1988 | 1985 | 1988 |
| AFGHANISTAN | 15 | 25 | 14 | 31 | 15 | 25 | 17 | 27 | 11 | 6 |
| BANGLADESH | 2 | 9 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 8 | 2 | 14 | 2 | 7 |
| BENIN | 17 | 52 | 23 | 38 | 16 | 52 | 27 | 67 | | 8 |
| BHUTAN | 10 | 27 | 11 | 23 | 11 | 27 | 21 | 38 | 3 | 10 |
| BOTSWANA | 68 | 86 | 68 | 91 | 68 | 88 | 68 | 99 | | 40 |
| BURKINA FASO | | 34 | 38 | 68 | | 34 | 17 | 67 | 4 | 26 |
| BURUNDI | | 73 | | 58 | | 76 | | 89 | 18 | 49 |
| CAPE VERDE | | 45 | | 59 | | 58 | | 99 | | |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | 20 | 24 | 23 | 30 | 20 | 24 | 34 | 53 | | 20 |
| CHAD | | 13 | | 16 | | 13 | | 31 | | 15 |
| COMOROS | | 71 | 18 | 71 | | 73 | | 97 | 10 | 26 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 7 | 25 | 14 | 35 | 7 | 25 | 17 | 41 | 3 | 8 |
| DJIBOUTI | 30 | 60 | 27 | 61 | 30 | 60 | 58 | 42 | 10 | 10 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | 3 | 3 | 12 | 12 | 4 | 4 | | 29 | 17 | 17 |
| ETHIOPIA | 6 | 16 | 12 | 13 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 27 | 4 | 7 |
| GAMBIA | 77 | 77 | 75 | 82 | 55 | 83 | 92 | 90 | 83 | 85 |
| GUINEA | | 2 | | 9 | | 1 | | 6 | | 7 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 18 | 56 | 35 | 60 | 18 | 54 | 33 | 98 | 10 | 22 |
| HAITI | 19 | 28 | 21 | 23 | 19 | 28 | 57 | 45 | | 31 |
| KIRIBATI | 37 | 37 | 7 | 7 | 15 | 15 | 49 | 49 | | 2 |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | 28 | 71 | 33 | 70 | 28 | 71 | 8 | 77 | | 62 |
| LESOTHO | | 77 | | 79 | | 77 | | 84 | | 0 |
| MALAWI | 52 | 55 | 51 | 53 | 46 | 50 | 87 | 92 | 18 | 20 |
| MALDIVES | 3 | 6 | 30 | 9 | 5 | 6 | 52 | 60 | 15 | 2 |
| MALI | | 3 | | 5 | | 3 | | 15 | | 3 |
| MAURITANIA | | 32 | | 69 | | 61 | | 91 | 12 | 0 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 29 | 29 | 39 | 39 | 25 | 25 | 47 | 47 | 40 | 40 |
| MYANMAR | 16 | 23 | | 14 | 3 | 13 | 45 | 45 | 20 | 24 |
| NEPAL | 31 | 46 | 45 | 0 | 20 | 40 | 67 | 78 | 10 | 15 |
| NIGER | | 5 | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | | 3 |
| RWANDA | 50 | 67 | 52 | 78 | 56 | 86 | 83 | 92 | 21 | 0 |
| SAMOA | 92 | 89 | 89 | 81 | 92 | 93 | 97 | 97 | | 21 |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | 42 | 66 | 35 | 59 | 45 | 65 | 75 | 90 | 42 | 59 |
| SIERRA LEONE | | 30 | | 50 | | 30 | | 73 | | 59 |
| SOMALIA | 22 | 25 | 34 | 29 | 22 | 25 | 31 | 33 | 14 | 6 |
| SUDAN | 8 | 29 | 6 | 22 | 8 | 29 | 12 | 46 | 3 | 12 |
| TOGO | | 41 | | 48 | | 40 | | 66 | | 64 |
| TUVALU | 97 | 58 | 92 | 65 | 97 | 73 | 99 | 92 | | 13 |
| UGANDA | 14 | 39 | 17 | 48 | 13 | 40 | 37 | 74 | 5 | 13 |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 67 | 81 | 74 | 88 | 64 | 65 | 90 | 94 | 37 | 54 |
| VANUATU | 30 | 31 | 26 | 25 | 27 | 31 | 83 | 75 | | 16 |
| YEMEN | 10 | 14 | 11 | 15 | 10 | 14 | 20 | 28 | 3 | 2 |
| Average of countries reporting both years | 31 | 42 | 33 | 44 | 28 | 41 | 48 | 63 | 17 | 23 |

Source: WHO/EPI figures as of 1985 and 1988

* date of report

\# 2 doses

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Attendance by trained personnel (%) | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Pregnancies | | Childbirths | | Infants | |
| | 1985* | 1988* | 1985* | 1988* | 1985* | 1988* |
| AFGHANISTAN | 5.0 | 8.0 | 5.0 | 8.0 | | |
| BANGLADESH | | 12.0 | | 5.0 | | |
| BENIN | 27.2 | 63.7 | 34.3 | 44.6 | | |
| BHUTAN | 3.4 | 16.0 | 3.4 | 7.0 | | 38.0 |
| BOTSWANA | | 74.0 | | 79.0 | | 54.0 |
| BURKINA FASO | 40.0 | 10.3 | | 30.0 | 30.0 | 20.0 |
| BURUNDI | 13.6 | 30.0 | 12.0 | 16.0 | 14.2 | |
| CAPE VERDE | 96.0 | 99.0 | 10.0 | | 85.0 | 100.0 |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | | 68.5 | | 65.7 | | 67.6 |
| CHAD | | | | | | |
| COMOROS | 69.4 | 69.4 | 24.0 | 24.0 | | |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | | |
| DJIBOUTI | 50.0 | 76.0 | 73.0 | 79.0 | 15.0 | 62.0 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | | | | | | |
| ETHIOPIA | 14.0 | | 58.0 | 9.0 | 10.0 | 15.0 |
| GAMBIA | 90.0 | 90.0 | 80.0 | 54.0 | | |
| GUINEA | | 36.0 | | 25.0 | | |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | | 29.0 | | 38.7 | | 92.5 |
| HAITI | 44.8 | 41.0 | 20.0 | 40.0 | | 33.0 |
| KIRIBATI | | | | | | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | | | | | | |
| LESOTHO | 40.0 | 50.0 | 28.0 | 40.0 | | 80.0 |
| MALAWI | 73.8 | 37.0 | 58.6 | 45.0 | 64.0 | 98.0 |
| MALDIVES | 47.0 | | | | | |
| MALI | | 20.0 | | 16.0 | | |
| MAURITANIA | 58.0 | 26.5 | 22.6 | 20.0 | 60.0 | 47.0 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 46.0 | 43.0 | 28.0 | 30.0 | 17.0 | 23.0 |
| MYANMAR | 90.9 | 75.0 | 97.4 | 25.0 | | 71.0 |
| NEPAL | 17.0 | 9.0 | 10.0 | 6.0 | 10.0 | |
| NIGER | 46.5 | | 46.5 | | 17.9 | |
| RWANDA | | 85.0 | | 22.0 | | |
| SAMOA | 92.0 | 50.0 | 52.0 | 95.0 | 97.0 | 50.0 |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | 60.0 | 64.0 | | 86.0 | 3.5 | 80.0 |
| SIERRA LEONE | 30.0 | | 25.0 | | 30.0 | |
| SOMALIA | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.0 | | |
| SUDAN | 20.0 | 40.0 | 20.0 | 60.0 | 70.0 | 70.0 |
| TOGO | | | | | | |
| TUVALU | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| UGANDA | | 86.0 | | | | |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 98.0 | 90.0 | 74.0 | 60.0 | | 90.0 |
| VANUATU | 90.0 | 75.0 | 72.0 | 86.0 | | |
| YEMEN | 21.0 | | 12.0 | 12.0 | | |
| Average of countries reporting both years | 51.5 | 49.0 | 39.0 | 37.9 | 50.1 | 60.5 |

Source: WHO country monitoring and evaluation reports

* date of report

| COUNTRY OR AREA | GNP/GDP per capita US$ | |
|---|---|---|
| | 1985* | 1988* |
| AFGHANISTAN | 202 | 205 |
| BANGLADESH | 123 | 147 |
| BENIN | 290 | 349 |
| BHUTAN | 80 | 110 |
| BOTSWANA | 648 | 1500 |
| BURKINA FASO | 240 | 200 |
| BURUNDI | 180 | 240 |
| CAPE VERDE | 341 | |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | 280 | |
| CHAD | 80 | 158 |
| COMOROS | 300 | 300 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 408 | 430 |
| DJIBOUTI | 276 | 276 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | 180 | |
| ETHIOPIA | 120 | |
| GAMBIA | 250 | |
| GUINEA | 300 | 320 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 160 | 200 |
| HAITI | 300 | 330 |
| KIRIBATI | | 324 |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | 202 | 202 |
| LESOTHO | 623 | 400 |
| MALAWI | 262 | 170 |
| MALDIVES | 407 | 348 |
| MALI | 120 | 170 |
| MAURITANIA | 185 | 235 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 270 | 105 |
| MYANMAR | 170 | 239 |
| NEPAL | 170 | 160 |
| NIGER | 240 | 250 |
| RWANDA | 236 | 301 |
| SAMOA | | 299 |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | 264 | |
| SIERRA LEONE | 320 | 300 |
| SOMALIA | 290 | 270 |
| SUDAN | 375 | 105 |
| TOGO | 264 | |
| TUVALU | 360 | 334 |
| UGANDA | 230 | 164 |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 270 | 270 |
| VANUATU | 529 | 115 |
| YEMEN | 530 | 520 |
| Average of 33 countries reporting both years | 284 | 286 |
| Range | 80 - 648 | 105 - 1500 |

Source: WHO country monitoring and evaluation reports, 1985 and 1988

* date of report

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Adult literacy rates | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Males | | Females | |
| | 1985* | 1988* | 1985* | 1988* |
| AFGHANISTAN | 33.0 | 50.0 | 6.0 | 10.0 |
| BANGLADESH | 39.7 | | 18.8 | |
| BENIN | 25.1 | | 9.5 | |
| BHUTAN | 36.8 | 36.8 | 10.0 | 10.0 |
| BOTSWANA | 32.0 | 62.0 | 36.0 | 64.0 |
| BURKINA FASO | 18.0 | 16.6 | 5.0 | 6.3 |
| BURUNDI | 35.4 | 46.0 | 15.7 | 35.0 |
| CAPE VERDE | 54.0 | | 34.0 | |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | | | | |
| CHAD | 35.0 | | 8.0 | |
| COMOROS | | 56.3 | | 41.5 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | | 59.0 | | 25.0 |
| DJIBOUTI | 34.0 | 34.0 | 14.0 | 14.0 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | | | | |
| ETHIOPIA | | | | |
| GAMBIA | | 20.0 | | 20.0 |
| GUINEA | 35.0 | | 14.0 | |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | | | | |
| HAITI | | 40.0 | | 35.0 |
| KIRIBATI | | | | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | | | | |
| LESOTHO | | 50.0 | | 50.0 |
| MALAWI | 48.0 | 52.0 | 25.0 | 31.0 |
| MALDIVES | 81.5 | | 81.8 | |
| MALI | 19.0 | | 8.0 | |
| MAURITANIA | | | | |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 44.2 | | 12.3 | |
| MYANMAR | 86.0 | 85.8 | 76.0 | 71.6 |
| NEPAL | 31.7 | 51.8 | 9.2 | 18.0 |
| NIGER | 14.0 | | 6.0 | |
| RWANDA | 49.5 | 61.0 | 30.5 | 33.0 |
| SAMOA | | | | |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | 73.2 | | 42.5 | |
| SIERRA LEONE | 31.0 | 32.0 | 17.0 | 25.0 |
| SOMALIA | 61.0 | 18.0 | 48.0 | 7.0 |
| SUDAN | 44.0 | 47.0 | 17.0 | 20.0 |
| TOGO | 33.0 | | 20.0 | |
| TUVALU | | | | |
| UGANDA | 63.0 | | 38.0 | |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | | | 18.0 | |
| VANUATU | | | | |
| YEMEN | 16.0 | 42.0 | 1.0 | 7.0 |
| Average of 14 countries reporting male & 14 countries reporting female rates for both years | 39.7 | 45.4 | 22.2 | 25.1 |
| RANGE: minimum | 14.0 | 16.6 | 1.0 | 6.3 |
| maximum | 86.0 | 85.8 | 81.8 | 71.6 |

Source: WHO country monitoring and evaluation reports, 1985 and 1988

* date of report

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Population (in thousands) | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 |
| AFGHANISTAN | 16,063 | 14,519 | 16,557 |
| BANGLADESH | 88,219 | 101,147 | 115,593 |
| BENIN | 3,494 | 4,050 | 4,741 |
| BHUTAN | 1,245 | 1,362 | 1,516 |
| BOTSWANA | 902 | 1,078 | 1,285 |
| BURKINA FASO | 6,959 | 7,882 | 9,007 |
| BURUNDI | 4,100 | 4,721 | 5,451 |
| CAPE VERDE | 296 | 330 | 379 |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | 2,298 | 2,576 | 2,913 |
| CHAD | 4,477 | 5,018 | 5,678 |
| COMOROS | 381 | 444 | 519 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 1,861 | 2,137 | 2,491 |
| DJIBOUTI | 300 | 350 | 406 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | 352 | 392 | 440 |
| ETHIOPIA | 38,750 | 42,271 | 46,743 |
| GAMBIA | 641 | 745 | 858 |
| GUINEA | 5,407 | 6,075 | 6,876 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 809 | 889 | 987 |
| HAITI | 5,413 | 5,922 | 6,504 |
| KIRIBATI | 59 | 64 | 68 |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | 3,205 | 3,594 | 4,071 |
| LESOTHO | 1,339 | 1,538 | 1,774 |
| MALAWI | 6,091 | 7,141 | 8,428 |
| MALDIVES | 155 | 183 | 215 |
| MALI | 7,023 | 8,082 | 9,362 |
| MAURITANIA | 1,551 | 1,766 | 2,024 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 12,100 | 13,720 | 15,663 |
| MYANMAR | 33,821 | 37,544 | 41,675 |
| NEPAL | 14,858 | 16,915 | 19,143 |
| NIGER | 5,311 | 6,115 | 7,109 |
| RWANDA | 5,163 | 6,102 | 7,232 |
| SAMOA | 155 | 163 | 170 |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | 85 | 97 | 112 |
| SIERRA LEONE | 3,263 | 3,665 | 4,151 |
| SOMALIA | 5,352 | 6,398 | 7,555 |
| SUDAN | 18,681 | 21,818 | 25,195 |
| TOGO | 2,554 | 2,960 | 3,455 |
| TUVALU | 8 | 8 | 9 |
| UGANDA | 13,119 | 15,491 | 18,442 |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 18,867 | 22,751 | 27,328 |
| VANUATU | 117 | 142 | 164 |
| YEMEN | 5,995 | 6,888 | 8,017 |

Source: UN - World Population Prospects, 1988

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Life expectancy - Males | | | Life expectancy - Females | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1980-1985 | 1985-1990 | 1990-1995 | 1980-1985 | 1985-1990 | 1990-1995 |
| AFGHANISTAN | 40.0 | 41.0 | 43.0 | 41.0 | 42.0 | 44.0 |
| BANGLADESH | 49.1 | 51.1 | 53.1 | 48.1 | 50.4 | 52.6 |
| BENIN | 42.4 | 44.9 | 46.9 | 45.6 | 48.1 | 50.2 |
| BHUTAN | 46.6 | 48.6 | 50.6 | 45.1 | 47.1 | 49.4 |
| BOTSWANA | 53.0 | 55.5 | 58.0 | 59.0 | 61.5 | 64.0 |
| BURKINA FASO | 43.7 | 45.6 | 47.6 | 46.8 | 48.9 | 50.9 |
| BURUNDI | 44.9 | 47.4 | 49.3 | 48.1 | 50.7 | 52.7 |
| CAPE VERDE | 57.3 | 59.3 | 61.3 | 60.8 | 62.8 | 64.8 |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | 41.4 | 43.9 | 45.9 | 44.6 | 47.1 | 49.1 |
| CHAD | 41.4 | 43.9 | 45.9 | 44.6 | 47.1 | 49.1 |
| COMOROS | 48.3 | 50.3 | 52.2 | 51.7 | 53.8 | 55.8 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 46.9 | 49.4 | 51.9 | 49.9 | 52.4 | 54.9 |
| DJIBOUTI | 43.4 | 45.4 | 47.4 | 46.6 | 48.7 | 50.7 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | 42.4 | 44.9 | 46.9 | 45.6 | 48.1 | 50.1 |
| ETHIOPIA | 38.4 | 39.4 | 41.4 | 41.6 | 42.6 | 44.6 |
| GAMBIA | 39.4 | 41.4 | 43.4 | 42.6 | 44.6 | 46.6 |
| GUINEA | 38.7 | 40.6 | 42.6 | 41.8 | 43.8 | 45.8 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 41.4 | 43.4 | 45.4 | 44.6 | 46.6 | 48.7 |
| HAITI | 51.2 | 53.1 | 55.0 | 54.4 | 56.4 | 58.3 |
| KIRIBATI | | | | | | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | 44.5 | 47.0 | 49.5 | 47.5 | 50.0 | 52.5 |
| LESOTHO | 49.0 | 51.5 | 54.0 | 58.0 | 60.5 | 63.0 |
| MALAWI | 44.4 | 46.3 | 48.4 | 45.7 | 47.7 | 49.7 |
| MALDIVES | | | | | | |
| MALI | 40.4 | 42.4 | 44.4 | 43.6 | 45.6 | 47.6 |
| MAURITANIA | 42.4 | 44.4 | 46.4 | 45.6 | 47.6 | 49.7 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 42.9 | 44.9 | 46.9 | 46.1 | 48.1 | 50.2 |
| MYANMAR | 55.8 | 58.3 | 60.8 | 59.3 | 61.8 | 64.3 |
| NEPAL | 49.0 | 51.5 | 54.0 | 47.5 | 50.3 | 53.0 |
| NIGER | 40.9 | 42.9 | 44.9 | 44.1 | 46.1 | 48.1 |
| RWANDA | 44.9 | 46.9 | 48.8 | 48.1 | 50.2 | 52.2 |
| SAMOA | | | | | | |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | | | | | | |
| SIERRA LEONE | 37.5 | 39.4 | 41.4 | 40.6 | 42.6 | 44.6 |
| SOMALIA | 41.4 | 43.4 | 45.4 | 44.6 | 46.6 | 48.6 |
| SUDAN | 46.6 | 48.6 | 50.6 | 49.0 | 51.0 | 53.0 |
| TOGO | 48.8 | 51.3 | 53.2 | 52.2 | 54.8 | 56.8 |
| TUVALU | | | | | | |
| UGANDA | 47.4 | 49.4 | 51.4 | 50.7 | 52.7 | 54.7 |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 49.3 | 51.3 | 53.3 | 52.7 | 54.7 | 56.7 |
| VANUATU | | | | | | |
| YEMEN | 46.9 | 49.5 | 52.0 | 49.9 | 52.4 | 54.9 |
| Average of 36 countries | 45.1 | 47.2 | 49.3 | 48.0 | 50.2 | 52.3 |
| Range: minimum | 37.5 | 39.4 | 41.4 | 40.6 | 42.0 | 44.0 |
| maximum | 57.3 | 59.3 | 61.3 | 60.8 | 62.8 | 64.8 |

Source: UN - World Population Prospects, 1988

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Infant mortality rates | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1980-1985 | 1985-1990 | 1990-1995 |
| AFGHANISTAN | 183.0 | 172.1 | 162.4 |
| BANGLADESH | 128.2 | 119.2 | 107.5 |
| BENIN | 120.1 | 110.0 | 101.0 |
| BHUTAN | 138.7 | 128.2 | 118.2 |
| BOTSWANA | 76.0 | 67.0 | 58.0 |
| BURKINA FASO | 149.4 | 137.6 | 126.5 |
| BURUNDI | 124.1 | 111.9 | 102.7 |
| CAPE VERDE | 74.8 | 65.6 | 56.7 |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | 142.0 | 132.0 | 122.0 |
| CHAD | 142.8 | 132.0 | 122.0 |
| COMOROS | 88.3 | 79.8 | 71.7 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 134.9 | 120.4 | 106.5 |
| DJIBOUTI | 132.0 | 121.6 | 111.9 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | 137.3 | 127.0 | 117.0 |
| ETHIOPIA | 159.0 | 154.3 | 142.8 |
| GAMBIA | 154.3 | 142.8 | 132.0 |
| GUINEA | 159.1 | 147.4 | 136.2 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 142.8 | 132.0 | 121.6 |
| HAITI | 128.0 | 117.0 | 106.0 |
| KIRIBATI | | | |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | 122.5 | 110.0 | 97.0 |
| LESOTHO | 111.0 | 100.0 | 89.0 |
| MALAWI | 163.0 | 150.5 | 138.3 |
| MALDIVES | | | |
| MALI | 179.5 | 169.0 | 159.0 |
| MAURITANIA | 137.3 | 126.6 | 116.6 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 153.5 | 141.5 | 130.1 |
| MYANMAR | 80.0 | 70.2 | 59.1 |
| NEPAL | 138.7 | 128.2 | 118.2 |
| NIGER | 145.7 | 134.6 | 124.1 |
| RWANDA | 132.0 | 121.6 | 111.9 |
| SAMOA | | | |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | | | |
| SIERRA LEONE | 166.5 | 154.3 | 142.8 |
| SOMALIA | 142.9 | 132.0 | 121.7 |
| SUDAN | 117.6 | 108.1 | 99.1 |
| TOGO | 102.3 | 93.8 | 85.3 |
| TUVALU | | | |
| UGANDA | 112.0 | 102.7 | 93.8 |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 115.0 | 105.6 | 96.6 |
| VANUATU | | | |
| YEMEN | 129.9 | 115.7 | 102.3 |
| Average of 36 countries | 132.3 | 121.7 | 111.3 |
| Range: minimum | 74.8 | 65.6 | 56.7 |
| maximum | 183.0 | 172.1 | 162.4 |

Source: UN - World Population Prospects, 1988

| COUNTRY OR AREA | Coverage with safe water (%) | | | | Coverage with adequate sanitary facilities (%) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Urban | | Rural | | Urban | | Rural | |
| | 1985* | 1988* | 1985* | 1988* | 1985* | 1988* | 1985* | 1988* |
| AFGHANISTAN | 30 | 38 | 10 | 17 | | 5 | | 0 |
| BANGLADESH | 29 | 25 | 43 | 66 | 21 | 20 | 2 | 6 |
| BENIN | 45 | 79 | 9 | 35 | 45 | 60 | 4 | 10 |
| BHUTAN | 40 | 100 | 14 | 24 | | 100 | | 7 |
| BOTSWANA | 98 | 100 | 72 | 33 | 79 | 90 | 13 | 25 |
| BURKINA FASO | 50 | 0 | 26 | 0 | 38 | 38 | 5 | 5 |
| BURUNDI | 33 | 92 | 22 | 27 | 90 | 90 | 25 | 15 |
| CAPE VERDE | 99 | 100 | 21 | 49 | 36 | 41 | 9 | 0 |
| CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC | 24 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 36 | 0 | 9 | 0 |
| CHAD | 27 | 0 | 30 | 0 | | 0 | | 0 |
| COMOROS | 99 | 0 | 52 | 0 | | 90 | | 80 |
| DEMOCRATIC YEMEN | 73 | 86 | 39 | 35 | 69 | 70 | 33 | 30 |
| DJIBOUTI | 53 | 50 | 20 | 21 | 43 | 94 | 19 | 50 |
| EQUATORIAL GUINEA | 47 | 0 | | 0 | 28 | 0 | | 0 |
| ETHIOPIA | 93 | 0 | 42 | 0 | | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| GAMBIA | 100 | 0 | 33 | 0 | | 0 | | 0 |
| GUINEA | 91 | 62 | 2 | 15 | 54 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 21 | 19 | 37 | 22 | 21 | 29 | 13 | 18 |
| HAITI | 73 | 59 | 25 | 32 | 54 | 42 | 12 | 14 |
| KIRIBATI | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 |
| LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 |
| LESOTHO | 37 | 0 | 14 | 40 | 22 | 0 | 11 | 20 |
| MALAWI | 82 | 66 | 54 | 49 | | 0 | | 0 |
| MALDIVES | 53 | 91 | 8 | 17 | 69 | 100 | 1 | 2 |
| MALI | 58 | 48 | 20 | 17 | 90 | 100 | 5 | 0 |
| MAURITANIA | 80 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 7 | 0 | | 0 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 82 | 50 | 2 | 12 | | 80 | | 40 |
| MYANMAR | 36 | 37 | 21 | 27 | 34 | 35 | 15 | 26 |
| NEPAL | 71 | 77 | 11 | 24 | 16 | 54 | 1 | 1 |
| NIGER | 48 | 0 | 34 | 0 | 36 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| RWANDA | 55 | 0 | 60 | 0 | 60 | 0 | 60 | 0 |
| SAMOA | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 |
| SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | | 0 |
| SIERRA LEONE | 58 | 86 | 8 | 20 | 43 | 86 | 10 | 20 |
| SOMALIA | 60 | 57 | 20 | 22 | 60 | 44 | 5 | 5 |
| SUDAN | | 90 | | 20 | 20 | 40 | 1 | 5 |
| TOGO | 68 | 0 | 26 | 0 | 34 | 0 | 8 | 0 |
| TUVALU | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | | | | |
| UGANDA | 45 | 45 | 12 | 12 | 40 | 40 | 10 | 10 |
| UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA | 85 | 80 | 47 | 38 | 91 | 90 | 76 | 78 |
| VANUATU | | 0 | | 0 | | 95 | | 35 |
| YEMEN | 100 | 90 | 21 | 30 | 75 | 66 | | 0 |
| Average of countries reporting both years | 63 | 68 | 26 | 31 | 52 | 61 | 14 | 19 |

Source: WHO country monitoring and evaluation reports,
1985 and 1988

* date of report

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Least Developed Countries
Seventh session
(Preparatory Committee for the Second
United Nations Conference on the Least
Developed Countries)
Geneva, 26 March 1990

SECOND UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES:

Preparatory process for the Conference

# TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Contribution by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) */

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# TECHNICAL COOPERATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

REPORT FOR THE

SECOND UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE

ON THE

LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

**TECHNICAL COOPERATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT**

**OF THE**

**LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES**

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BIBLIOGRAPHY

# TECHNICAL COOPERATION
# IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE
# LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

## INTRODUCTION

This report on Technical Cooperation (TC) is prepared by the UNDP in support of its participation in the Second United Nations Conference on the Development of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs). It reflects the recognition of TC as a key development resource and the growing concerns as to its effectiveness. Drawing on a variety of assessments and studies, the report provides a brief summary of the principal dimensions of TC. It reviews the role of Technical Cooperation in increasing national capacities for development and identifies possible actions by LDC and donor governments for improving Technical Cooperation programs. (The UNDP's role in the LDCs is described in a separate paper, "Development in the 1980s and Proposals for the 1990s")

## TECHNICAL COOPERATION DEFINED

Technical Cooperation according to UNDP's recommended definition,[1]/ is defined as the provision of resources aimed at the transfer of technical and managerial skills and know-how or of technology for the purpose of building up national capacity to undertake development activities. Technical Cooperations includes resources in form of personnel, training and equipment necessary to carry out the activities specified.

Technical Cooperation may be divided into two categories: (i) Investment Related Technical Cooperation which comprises the provision of resources directly aimed at strengthening the capacity

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[1]/ Draft Instruction Manual for the Development Cooperation Report, UNDP, 1989. Recent technical discussions between UNDP and OECD are leading to common definitions for technical cooperation and technical assistance - free standing and investment related - to permit greater consistency in statistical reporting. The definitions used here are those proposed by the UNDP; the substance of the UNDP and OECD definitions are the same.

READEX FICHE

to execute specific investment projects and (ii) Free Standing Technical Cooperation which is provided per se, regardless of any parallel investment project.

This definition establish that the aim of TC is the promotion of self-reliance and that TC is, in any particular situation, a temporary activity - even if continued for many years - to be terminated when the self-reliance objective has been achieved. Self-reliance means that LDC institutions have the capacity to take the lead, define needs, select and generate technologies, and adapt and apply them to local circumstances. Linkages with other institutions in the world with common interests and knowledge continue to be essential for quality, relevance and continued intellectual growth.

TC (the provision of expertise, training and related equipment) is one form of input in the development process just as financial aid, food and other commodity aid, and equipment are inputs. The development objective determines the choice of inputs and their allocation. Not all TC is developmental, i.e. an investment in increased national human and institutional capacities. Much of the TC provided to LDCs is not focused on building these capacities, but rather on filling operations tasks. TC, in its operations role, serves to maintain and supplement existing functions or meet short term staff needs such as during an emergency. In conjunction with capital aid, TC meets the one-time requirements of feasibility studies, design and construction services; it may not lead to increased professional and institutional capacities.

A review of the effectiveness of TC will need to take into account both its operations role and, more important, its contribution, as a long term investment in capacity building, to the achievement of specific development objectives. The criteria for judging the performance of TC projects relate to their efficiency, effectiveness, impact, and sustainability in achieving these objectives.

With these definitions of TC in mind, what have been the funding levels for TC? What is its role in national development? What are the issues of effectiveness? What actions can LDC and donor governments take to improve TC performance? The discussions of these questions in the next sections bring out the importance of TC as a development resource for the LDCs which requires increased attention in donor and LDC resource management.

I.

## TECHNICAL COOPERATION:

## FUNDING AND ALLOCATIONS

Technical Cooperation is a major resource for LDC development. In 1987, the 42 Least Developed Countries received $2.4 billion in official Technical Cooperation grants (expenditures). This figure, based on OECD/DAC statistics,[2]/ understates the full extent of TC activity since it does not include TC as part of capital aid (IRTC) and volunteers and NGOs, not government financed. It does not include assistance from the Members of the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA), which is substantial in some of the LDCs. The UNDP's DCRs, based on data collected in the LDCs, also indicate that the OECD/DAC figures understate the levels of TC.

The $2.4 billion for TC is approximately 22% of total net Official Development Assistance (ODA) to the LDCs. For 15 LDCs, TC is particularly large at 30% or higher. TC funding is an important dimension of LDC economies for many of the LDCs - 5% of GNP or higher in 22 LDCs. Generally, the smaller countries received a higher per capita share of the TC funding for LDCs than those with large populations. LDCs received about 20% of the total TC funding for all developing countries.

Although the data do not permit firm conclusions on trends, the figures suggest a substantial increase in TC for the LDCs over the long term. In real terms (1986 base), the annual average funding for TC in the period 1980-87 was about 80% higher than the annual average for 1971-79 period (See Table I).

Sector Allocations: Table IV (see Annexes) provides a breakdown for 1987 of TC by value for the various sectors in 30 LDCs for which data are available. This picture is somewhat obscured by the large percentages assigned to General Development Issues and to "Other".

Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries were first priority in the use of TC in 19 LDCs. About half of these countries show, in 1987, 20% or more of their TC in this sector. The highest concentrations were in Burkina Faso and Sao Tome Principe with 50% of TC allocated to agriculture. Cape Verde and Niger (40%), Burundi, Uganda and Guinea Bissau (31%), Gambia and Haiti (35%), West Somoa (30%) also had high concentrations of TC in agriculture.

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[2]/ Sources: "Geographic Distribution of Financial Flows to Developing Countries: Disbursements, Commitments, Economic Indicators. 1984/1987", OECD, Paris, 1989. Also volumes for 1983/1986, 1979/1982, 1978/1981, 1971/1977. "Socio-Economic, Monetary and Resources Tables", UNDP, 1989.

Education was the highest priority for TC in 8 LDCs - Benin (31%), Comoros, Lesotho, Central African Republic (28%), Chad (29%), Djibouti (45%), and Yemen (34%).

Health was a first priority sector for TC in two countries: Malawi (25%) and Sierra Leone (28%).

Agriculture, Education, Health and General Development issues were, generally, important among the 30 LDCs as second priorities in the allocations of TC funding.

TC Components: Statistics on the breakdown equipment of TC funding by its main components (experts, training, equipment) are not available to permit useful aggregations.- But the impression from available information and selected country data suggest that the numbers of experts in the LDCs, particularly in Africa, are exceptionally large. A study of TC in Sub-Saharan Africa by the Nordic Countries reports that "it is estimated that some 80,000 resident non-nationals are working on technical assistance programmes in the public and parastatal sectors of the 40 countries in sub-Saharan Africa." (Nordic, 1988). For eleven of the smaller LDCs (in Africa) with 1988 data (see Annex IV), the total number of technical cooperation personnel is estimated to be about 4157, not including volunteers and NGO personnel. Figures on allocations for training and equipment are not available but probably account for only a small share of the total funding. For example, UNDP allocates about two-thirds of its budget for expert advisory services - long and short term; the balance is for training and equipment.

In summary, despite the lack of complete and consistent data on TC, the available data make clear that TC is an important part of development aid and a major resource for the LDCs. The figures also suggest a substantial LDC dependency on foreign expertise. Because of this scale of TC involvement in the development programs of the LDCs, the effectiveness of TC is particularly important for LDC long term development. What is the role of TC in national development? What are the concerns about its effectiveness? What actions can donor and LDC governments take to improve the performance of TC projects? These topics will be discussed in the next two sections.

## II.

## CREATING NATIONAL MANAGEMENT, TECHNICAL, AND INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITIES

Studies of economic development place institutional and human capacities as pivotal factors in determining the relative success of national development. The diversity of institutions and the richness of knowledge of the professional community and the general population stand out as central in economic and social growth. The people, and the institutions they create and manage, are the active agents in the development process generating and using the otherwise passive capital and natural resources available to them. Quality, relevance, and commitment to development are the essential characteristics of success and the criteria for measuring performance in the achievement of development goals.

Over the past several decades, as well as in earlier periods of history, those countries which have demonstrated the most rapid advancement are those which have concentrated on the development of their human and institutional capabilities. They have not necessarily been richly endowed with natural resources. But their focus on their human and institutional capabilities has enabled them to seek out, aggressively and selectively, the more advanced and relevant technologies as well as material and financial resources in the world and assimilate them into their economies. And in time, they have developed the capacity to generate themselves an increasing proportion of the technologies they require. The capacity of a nation to use science and technology to achieve developmental objectives lies at the heart of the processes of economic and social change and modernization.

It is in this context that the role of technical cooperation can be addressed. Do the technical and training services provided by assistance programs contribute to the advancement of LDC professional and institutional capacities? Do they contribute to building the essential base of knowledge that LDC populations require for productive employment and an improved quality of life?

The coming decades call for rapid advancements in building the LDCs' human and institutional capacities. The complexities and magnitudes of the technological, economic, and social issues ahead accent the critical importance of accelerated attention to a new generation of professional and institutional development. Building on decades of achievement, in which TC has had a part, the LDCs and their donor counterparts now have the opportunity to move ahead with these basic dimensions of their development. TC is an important instrument for this task in capacity building. What have been some of the main issues in its effective use?

## A. The Effectiveness of Technical Cooperations: Some Issues

Evaluation reports and discussions with development practitioners bring out a number of broad concerns with the effectiveness of TC programs in the LDCs and in developing countries, generally. There is an unease about whether the results are commensurate with the very large expenditures on TC activity. With the high levels of funding and large numbers of foreign experts in their countries, the LDCs could expect that the results in development achievements would be more significant in creating the professional manpower and institutional capacities they require.

Studies undertaken in several of the LDCs in Africa, within the UNDP funded project "National Technical Cooperation Assessments and Programme (NaTCAP)", raise questions about the effectiveness of TC, particularly in relation to its contributions to capacity building and the transfer of technology, dependency on foreign operating personnel, and donor domination of the TC project process. The Nordic Report on "The Effectiveness of Technical Assistance Personnel" states that after "looking at 900 man years of assistance we must conclude that the institutional framework that should lead to a transfer of knowledge was non-existent or crippled... In sum, the impact does not stand in any favorable relation to cost", although the report also pointed out the useful contributions of technical assistance personnel in operating roles. (Nordic, 1988 .p.ii) A German Report "Learning from Mistakes, Nine Years of Evaluating Project Reality, Findings and Conclusions", while generally positive about TC project contributions, notes that the "sustainability of project success is still inadequate". The OECD/DAC's recent discussions on Technical Cooperation point out the "persistent and continuous need for institutional development and the individual assessments made by various agencies (UNDP, World Bank, and other donors) showing disappointing results of TC...." While these reviews apply to TC, generally, in all developing countries, they are distinctly relevant to the more vulnerable LDCs.

These reports also bring out the general observation that LDC and donor economic and social policy environments, within which TC projects operate, are fundamental to effective TC. If the social and economic incentives for development are badly distorted and create inefficiencies, directed towards narrow or corrupt ends, and are insensitive to the broader development interests of society, TC projects will not flourish nor have beneficial and lasting impacts. Accepting that these policy issues are being addressed, several considerations remain that have a direct bearing on TC effectiveness.

Creating Permanent Institutional and Human Resource Capacities

A major part of TC expertise is allocated to filling operating positions. While these personnel may be performing their operational functions satisfactorily, they are not giving adequate attention to the longer term tasks of building LDC institutional and individual capacities. Counterpart development is not working. Training activities are slighted. The demands on expatriate operating personnel, such as teachers, medical staff, managers, technical staff, to get the work done divert their attention from developing individual and institutional capabilities.

This situation reflects the classic problem of the conflict between short and long term objectives, which are evident in many development projects. The reasonable desire for early and tangible accomplishments limits the time and interest in developing capabilities for carrying a program forward over the long term. When new projects are started in situations where there is little existing LDC management and technical capacity, it is difficult to create this capacity while carrying out operational duties. Unless the capacity building objective is clear and up front in the project design and in participant understandings (not necessarily the case with many TC activities), it will not be addressed until, suddenly towards the end of the project life, the participants realize that something is required to sustain the program after the TC project is terminated.

Evaluations of infrastructure projects, when focused on the question of sustainability, have frequently pointed out that insufficient attention had been given to building sustainable institutions to operate and maintain these investments. The successful conclusion of construction and positive determinations of rates of return at project completion may obscure the institutional weaknesses which tend to show up after the technical support, provided during implementation, has been withdrawn. Technical personnel, who are necessary for the planning and construction stages, are not necessarily the ones most able to assist with institutional issues.

Problems of building institutional and human resource capacities also stem from the deterioration in LDC working environments. Inadequate pay and support services, particularly in public service positions, weak management, and the lack of motivation to maintain quality in performance standards work against efforts to strengthen local capacities. High turnover rates, the lack of counterparts, and the loss of trained nationals to other countries and organizations are serious manifestations of these problems. In these circumstances, the use of externally financed personnel is attractive to managers under pressure to get a job done. A self-defeating process is perpetuated, i.e. limited attention to capacity building, weak incentives for staff development and retention, and thus, continued dependence on expatriate staff to meet operational duties who have little time for staff development.

Quality of TC Personnel

A second concern is with the quality of TC personnel. While as a rule proficient technically, TC personnel are used for a variety of tasks for which they may not be equipped such as handling policy, institution building, and training tasks along with their technical and operating responsibilities. Some may be able to join these several functions successfully; many are not prepared to do so. Often specific work objectives are not spelled out and standards of performance specified. Problems of quality are also evident in the TC personnel's lack of knowledge of local conditions and insensitivity to local cultures which combine to impede effective and efficient performance.

Quality in TC personnel is also affected by a lack of access to state-of-the-art knowledge of technologies, development processes, and development experience - of what works. The combination of demanding workloads and isolation from easy access to the experience of others and to new developments weakens the effectiveness of individual and institutional participation in development programs. The rapid pace of change in development circumstances and relevant new technologies require new modes of information exchange.

Inadequate Use of Local Resources

A common complaint from the LDCs is that capable nationals are often not being employed in country development programs. LDCs have weIl educated and competent professionals who are being by-passed in favor of "imported" expertise. Yet in some countries, the percentage of unemployed university graduates is high and growing. LDC governments and donors may be, at times, too quick to bring in outside expertise without exploring the LDC capabilities available at home or that could be attracted to return. Needs assessments, if undertaken at all, tend to ignore these local capabilities.

This issue of by-passing individual expertise, available locally, is also evident in the tendency to avoid using national institutions and firms in favor of outside organizations. One of the best ways to develop local capacities is to put them to work on development tasks supported by international technical services, if necessary.

Closely associated with this issue is the growing recognition that old patterns and forms of TC are becoming less appropriate. With the evolution of LDC institutional and individual expertise, new modes of technical collaboration are required. A failure to be sensitive to this changing condition can lead to resentments and controversies that damage TC effectiveness and to the loss of opportunities for productive interchange on development issues.

Design and Implementation of TC Projects

It is a common statement in project evaluations that TC project objectives are not well defined, too diffuse, over-ambitious and not linked to government programming and budget processes. Often key participants are not in agreement on objectives and fail to sort out differing goals and interests. Some argue that the traditional TC project is too narrowly defined and bounded by objectives too limited to be an effective development instrument. The project framework tends to isolate the project's activities from interacting with related development processes unless it is structured and carried out as part of a sector or sub-sector strategy.

During implementation TC projects are often poorly executed. Delays in the availability of experts, inadequate or no TORs, weak supervision, insufficient coordination, little or no monitoring and evaluation are among the more frequently cited problems. Lack of LDC participation in the selection of TC experts and firms is also a common complaint. Similarly training programs are not always carefully tied in with capacity building objectives, may not be technically suitable, and are poorly timed to coincide with TC experts' availability.

The provision of equipment and commodities under TC projects is often cited as an area of weakness in project design and implementation. Lack of needs assessments, tied procurement, lack of standardization, shortages of spare parts, poor maintenance, and, particularly important, the absence of funding for commodities and equipment after donor financing ends are among the frequently reported issues.

Management of TC Programming

Many critics of TC express the view that the choice of TC projects and technical services is supply driven, i.e. determined by donors rather than guided by well defined priorities determined by LDC development objectives. Donor agencies, of which there are large number in each LDC with special interests, are looking for opportunities to promote these interests; they can usually find an LDC organization interested in a joint program whether it is a priority of not. On the other hand, donor initiative can be important in identifying development problems, opportunities, and approaches.

At the same time, the volume of TC and the number and diversity of projects and donor procedures is overwhelming LDC government abilities to coordinate and manage. Many LDC governments do not have the staff and organizational arrangements to coordinate and guide the abundance of TC resources available. Too much time of key government leaders is absorbed in numerous meetings with study and design teams keeping them from their primary management responsibilities. The consequence is an uncontrolled growth in the

number of projects and added strains on government resources leaving some activities under-nourished and inadequately managed.

These issues may reflect a lack of balance in the respective roles of LDC and donor participation in deciding on TC allocations. More leadership from LDC governments is called for. Also policy and strategy frameworks are needed for guiding decisions and promoting discipline to adhere to agreed priorities; without them, the proliferation of unfocused activity will continue and be stimulated by any availability of increased resources. The increasing attention to aid coordination arrangements reflects, in part, this concern about the proliferation and overlapping of TC programs.

## B. Building Sustainable Development Programs

The common thread that runs through these several concerns about TC effectiveness is the need for a clear understanding and agreement among donors and LDC leaders on what is required to build sustainable development programs. Sustainability is a key objective. Where the long term objective of program sustainability becomes the guiding criteria for effective programs, the orientation of project design and technician participation changes. Assumptions about conditions supportive of successful development become more important. Project objectives and technician roles are more sharply defined. Commitments more firmly established. Constituent support is sought. Institutional resource requirements in staff, funds, and managerial leadership are identified. With sustainability a key guide, then, four programming actions stand out as essential.

The first, and most important, of these essential actions is having in place a well articulated statement of priorities. This statement should be a succinct presentation of objectives developed through a strategic planning process based on needs assessments and involving the principal participants and beneficiaries. The aim is not to produce a detailed planning document but a precise statement of goals with basic quantitative and qualitative (including capacity building) goals. Such a process will help to create a consensus on priority program requirements and establish commitments to these goals. This statement of priorities will need to be based on well maintained and comprehensive statistics on TC currently active in the country.

Second, the design process should be shifted from narrowly defined TC projects to sector and sub-sector programming, in which the lead LDC institutions and interested donors join together in policy definition, program design and identification of discrete TC activities. Such a process will help identify local capabilities and needs and guide decisions about what TC assistance will be welcome and what TC should be terminated or refused. The design process should give greater attention to institutional analyses, determinations of needs, modest - and sequenced - objectives, more precise TORs and training plans, and carefully planned mixes of

long term and short term expertise - all with capacity building firmly in mind.

Third a collaborative monitoring and evaluation program - LDC agencies and donors together - should be established drawing on recent developments in simplified management information systems and evaluation techniques. Part of the problem with evaluating TC relates to the lack of clearly defined objectives for much of the TC undertaken or, in dynamic situations, the lack of a continuous process for redefining these objectives in the light of new learning. Despite these difficulties, there is much that can be done to obtain a better understanding of what assistance programs are contributing to development - about their efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. The accent in this monitoring and evaluation should be on a learning process among the participants as development activities progress.

Fourth, the LDC will need to have an effective TC management and coordination capability as part of aid coordination generally and closely tied in with the government's investment programs and budgets. This central capability would be responsible for maintaining the data base on TC, coordinating proposals and design processes in relation to national priorities and other donor activity, promoting capacity building strategies in TC projects, and ensuring the adequacy of monitoring and evaluation plans.

The underlying consideration in building sustainable programs - cutting across all sectors and programs - is the importance of aiming for excellence and relevance in institutional and individual expertise - LDC and donor. To achieve excellence and relevance requires:

- the commitment of political leadership - LDC and donor - to promoting the goals and priorities of development and to creating political and socio-economic settings which value and facilitate development;

- well defined and practical development objectives for programs letting quantity follow from an emphasis on quality;

- the advancement of managerial leadership capable of shaping development values, mobilizing resources and participation, and focusing on results;

- building on and revitalizing LDC expertise - individual and institutional - with sharpened or redefined missions that directly relate to the priority development objectives of the country;

- quality TC personnel with broad capabilities, well designed and job focused training programs, and ready access to state-of-the-art information on development

technologies and processes;

- rigorous LDC led evaluations of program performance as a learning process.

Given these issues of effectiveness, suggested programming actions, and underlying considerations related to TC in development programs, what specific actions can LDC governments and donors take to improve the performance and impact of TC programs?

## III.

## IMPROVING TECHNICAL COOPERATION PROGRAMS

Measures to improve TC programs call for separate actions by the LDCs and the donors as well as collaborative undertakings. The guiding principle in these actions is the importance of building self-sustaining institutional and human resources capacities.

### A. Actions by LDCs

1) Taking the Lead

The LDCs have an important responsibility for taking the lead in improving TC in their country development programs. This responsibility involves decisions on the allocation of TC resources in conformance with sector priorities. It also includes decisions about the types of TC services needed and the effective use of these resources in the building of national human and institutional capacities. Managing the flow of TC resources, as an integral part of LDC government investment plans and budgets, calls for a well structured aid coordination unit and a national policy on the use of TC. Some of the LDCs have these units and policies, but they may not be sufficiently developed to provide the requisite leadership consistent with the volume of TC assistance being provided. The key action is to strengthen capacities to take the lead.

2) Defining Programmes and Policies for Technical Cooperation

It is important that LDC Governments define a strategy and design programmes and policies for the use of TC resources. It is the opportunity for the LDCs to specify goals and priorities for human resources and institution building and how TC should be applied to achieve them, in effect, how to move from dependency on foreign financed experts to a condition of professional collaboration. Such a strategy defines the relative importance of TC funding for long term operations staff, short term advisers and consultants, the appropriate role of training and the efficient and sustained use of TC related equipment.

In support of this action the National Technical Cooperation Assessments and Programmes (NaTCAP) process is being used by a number of LDC governments and is under consideration by others. The UNDP, at the request of these governments is assisting with the implementation of the NaTCAP process, but leadership lies with the LDC governments themselves. In Malawi, for example, the Government has assigned one of its senior officials as chairman of the NaTCAP Task Force, appointed a national coordinator, and formed a number of working groups in specific sectors and for such aspects of TC activity as data collection and analysis, TC management, and defining the role of TC in human and institutional capacity building. Where LDC governments are taking steps along the lines of the NaTCAP, with or without UNDP involvement, they are

strengthening their ability to take the lead in defining the selection and use of TC resources. (see UNDP's "Development in the 1980s and Proposals for the 1990s" for details on the NaTCAP process.)

3) Strengthening Monitoring and Evaluation Capabilities

Many of the LDC governments are "building into" their sector development programs and central planning units the capacity to monitor and evaluate their investment activity. While often associated with external assistance, such M&E capabilities are part of sound management practices whether donors are involved or not. Monitoring and evaluation activity includes tracking the implementation and effects of individual TC projects, the oversight of sector and national development trends, and assessments of the impact of investment programs after the investment period ends. An up-to-date data base on on-going TC activity is an essential base of information for these monitoring and evaluation activities.

Some of the main conditions for successful LDC monitoring and evaluation systems include:

a. Close links with the information requirements of managers at all levels of responsibility;

b. Attention to objectivity and fairness, participation, openness and independence in evaluation operations;

c. The timeliness, relevance and usefulness of evaluation products;

d. Practical and effective means for the dissemination of evaluation findings;

e. Well-formed management information systems based on practical, cost-effective techniques of data collection and analysis.

The OECD/DAC is in the process of developing guidelines on the evaluation of TC which should be helpful to donor and LDC project managers.

4) Providing staff incentives

Although severe budget constraints may limit LDC action, LDC government policy and practice aimed at attracting and holding high quality nationals in positions of technical and managerial leadership is fundamental to the achievement of TC objectives. The local incentive system for LDC nationals working in the public and private sectors has a powerful influence on whether the beneficial results of TC are maintained and advanced. Well defined assignments in dynamic organizations, relatively adequate pay scales and benefits, advancement by merit, professional association and

recognition, access to essential "tools-of- the-trade" are all parts of an incentive system for encouraging highly trained and skilled personnel to return from training or stay on the job. The absence of these incentives can only perpetuate a dependence on TC.

## B. Actions by Donors

### 1) Modifying Donor Policies and Practices

The donor community has a parallel responsibility to that of the LDCs for improving TC. Actions by donors call for addressing many of the issues about the quality of TC raised in the earlier section on the effectiveness of TC. These actions include, for example:

- Greater sensitivity to LDC priorities and the use of LDC professional capabilities;
- More attention to building LDC capacities so that expatriate expertise can be withdrawn sooner than later;
- Assurances that technicians are not only technically qualified but also skilled in the art of transferring knowledge and skills and see that aim as central to their assignments;
- More carefully tailored training programs tied to specific institutional objectives;
- Greater care in the selection of TC related commodities to fit local capacities to operate and maintain.

For those LDCs employing the NaTCAP process, donors can be helpful in facilitating its application and responding to the guidelines it establishes. Donors can also orient their own evaluation activities in ways that will reinforce the creation of LDC evaluation capacities.

### 2) Increasing and sustaining TC resources

For some LDCs, the volume of TC resources may need to be increased or continued over longer periods until local resources are available to sustain key development organizations such as research institutes, university programs, and social services. Such extensions may require reorientations in the forms of TC support such as, over time, fewer long term operating staff and advisers, more short term advisers, and greater proportions of TC funding for training, commodities and related operational costs.

## C. Collaborative Actions by LDCs and Donors

### 1) Supporting TC coordination arrangements

Various coordination arrangements have been set up. They provide important opportunities for donor and LDC governments to cooperate on addressing the issues of effectiveness and to work out together solutions for the long term application of TC resources. The UNDP sponsors Round Tables and The World Bank Consultative Groups. There are now thirty-four of these arrangements. Local coordination meetings on TC programs, in general, or for specific sector programs are also common in the LDCs.

Technical Cooperation specifically figures on the agenda of Round Table Conferences and Consultative Groups, and for that purpose a TC discussion paper is normally presented. For Consultative Groups, it is agreed that UNDP has the responsibility for assisting the Government with the presentation of TC issues.

### 2) Identifying strategic points for TC resources

The Working Groups of the Meetings of Experts on the UN Conference on the LDCs have identified several areas of central importance to LDC development prospects. Implicit in most of these issues is the contribution of TC and the key role it can play in strengthening LDC performance. These areas include such priorities as managing the national economy, human resources development (population growth, education, science and technology, women in development, local participation, entrepreneurs), agriculture (appropriate technologies, research, inputs, policies), early warning systems, environment and natural disasters, and, in general, institutional infrastructure (management and administration, information systems and services). While these topics suggest a broad agenda of action, LDCs and donors working together can increase TC effectiveness by identifying within each area those strategic points of action on which to concentrate TC resources for the achievement of the most beneficial and sustainable development impact.

### 3) Improving the statistical and performance information on TC

The UNDP and OECD/DAC are collaborating on the statistics on Technical Cooperation programs. This work should be continued. At the same time, donors and LDCs should collaborate on ways to obtain more systematic information on the performance and impact of TC and obtain the results of evaluations for providing lessons learned for the benefit of the development community as a whole. Additional measures will be required for sharing this information to help donor and LDC experts keep up-to-date on development technologies and practices.

## IV.

## SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS

Four conclusions stand out as a general summing up of some of the main points in this paper:

1. A very substantial proportion of external assistance to the LDCs is being spent on TC activities with large numbers of foreign experts working in LDC countries. The scale of activity in some countries is extraordinarily high. Along with the growing appreciation of the large volume of TC is a growing unease about the effectiveness of TC. Questions are being raised as to whether the results are commensurate with the investment.

2. The focus of this unease is on issues of the quality of TC such as weaknesses in the definition of goals; weaknesses in building individual and institutional capacities; a preoccupation with operational tasks and short term outputs; tendencies towards a proliferation of TC activity; weaknesses in the quality, timeliness, and appropriateness of TC expertise, training and equipment; donor driven activities identified to fit donor interests. The evidence of these weaknesses should not obscure the fact that a great deal of very beneficial work is being carried out. A history of LDC development would cite many successes in all fields resulting from TC programs.

3. Increased attention needs to be given to accenting the quality, the results and impact of TC activity. While additional resources may be required, they will achieve little of lasting effect unless LDC and donor participants give more attention to what is being accomplished over the long term. The quality of key national institutions and LDC participation is central to the successful achievement of economic and social growth and the beneficial use of financial aid now being provided to the LDCs. A renewed emphasis on institutional development and LDC capacity building is particularly important given the increasing complexity and urgency of the development problems ahead as a consequence of rapid population growth and related large scale unemployment and environmental degradation. The identification of strategic points for the use of TC resources in the sectors presented in the Report of the Experts Meetings for the UN Conference on LDCs will strengthen the effectiveness of TC programs and reduce costly proliferation.

4. Both LDC and donor governments have separate, and joint, responsibilities for improving TC performance. LDC governments will need to strengthen their management of TC and provide greater leadership in relating TC to national priorities and budgets. Donors will need to consider appropriate increases for specific countries, and help to ensure that the TC they provide is of the highest quality. National assessments of TC and collaborative

arrangements for monitoring and evaluating TC programs, which join LDC and donor participation, need to be a given early and vigorous attention. Aid coordination arrangements in Round Tables, Consultative Groups, and local coordination meetings can be instrumental in facilitating agreement on ways to improve the contributions of TC to LDC development.

TABLE I: LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES: TECHNICAL COOPERATION AID 1971-1987

| COUNTRY/ TC GRANTS $million | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFGHANISTAN | 24.1 | 24.3 | 24 | 21.5 | 25.1 | 20.1 | 27.9 | 31.1 | 37.8 | 21.8 | 14.8 | 13.9 | 15.2 | 12.4 | 15.4 | 13 | 29.3 |
| BANGLADESH | | 10.4 | 11.7 | 29.6 | 58.2 | 62.4 | 26.3 | 99.7 | 148 | 158.9 | 147 | 133.1 | 176 | 158 | 168.8 | 158 | 164.4 |
| BENIN | 10 | 8.3 | 10.2 | 12.4 | 20 | 16 | 13.4 | 16.9 | 20.4 | 25.9 | 25.1 | 27.9 | 25.5 | 28.1 | 30.3 | 38.4 | 135.5 |
| BHUTAN | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 10.6 | 9.9 |
| BOTSWANA | 4.8 | 4.5 | 7.8 | 9.5 | 13.7 | 15.2 | 17.9 | 23 | 36.3 | 47.5 | 48 | 42.8 | 40.5 | 34.8 | 36.9 | 43.4 | 49.7 |
| BURKINO FASO | 9.5 | 12.8 | 15.3 | 19.5 | 32.5 | 37.8 | 37.8 | 49.1 | 60.7 | 73 | 72 | 73.7 | 65.2 | 71.4 | 69.7 | 96.2 | 99 |
| BURMA | 5.8 | 8.3 | 8 | 12.2 | 15 | 17.4 | 14.7 | 17.7 | 30.9 | 31.1 | 38.7 | 41.8 | 36.5 | 37.8 | 46.8 | 54.1 | 55.4 |
| BURUNDI | 11.4 | 13.6 | 15.5 | 17.1 | 23.1 | 22.7 | 25.4 | 30.4 | 35.7 | 45 | 44.2 | 46.8 | 43.3 | 42.7 | 45.7 | 53.6 | [illegible] |
| CAPE VERDE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 17 | 19.1 | 24.5 | 27.1 |
| CAR | 8.3 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 12.9 | 19.2 | 19.3 | 20.5 | 24.6 | 32.9 | 34.1 | 33.6 | 31.2 | 28.9 | 38.5 | 34 | 45.8 | 49.1 |
| CHAD | 12.3 | 15 | 20.1 | 19.6 | 25.3 | 21.9 | 24.6 | 29.2 | 21.4 | 11.9 | 16.8 | 15.3 | 21.7 | 18.8 | 42.6 | 46 | 51.8 |
| COMOROS | 6.4 | 3 | 8.6 | 13.4 | 7 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 1.3 | 2.9 | 7 | 10.1 | 9.6 | 9.9 | 9.4 | 11.1 | 13.6 | 19.4 |
| DEM. YEMEN | 3.4 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 7 | 9.1 | 11.3 | 10.5 | 10.8 | 7.9 | 11.6 | 12.6 | 14.8 | 14.3 | 9.9 | 12.5 | 8.6 | 8.7 |
| DJIBOUTI | 8.1 | 5.1 | 9.6 | 13.7 | 11.1 | 14 | 15.2 | 14.3 | 19 | 27.8 | 29.8 | 30.8 | 29.3 | 29.8 | 29.7 | 45.5 | 37.8 |
| EQUAT GUINEA | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 6.7 | 6 | 7.8 | 6.6 |
| ETHIOPIA | 20.9 | 22.2 | 28.5 | 34.6 | 33.3 | 31.7 | 30.3 | 26.5 | 29.2 | 44.2 | 63.9 | 53.1 | 63.6 | 80.9 | 104.2 | 116 | 146.3 |
| GAMBIA | 1.1 | 1.6 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 4.3 | 3.2 | 6.8 | 9.6 | 12.7 | 13.8 | 17.4 | 15.8 | 14.8 | 17.9 | 32.5 | 21.4 |
| GUINEA | 4.2 | 1 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 3.2 | 5.4 | 5.9 | 10.3 | 11.1 | 18.7 | 21.4 | 20.5 | 14.4 | 17.9 | 19.9 | 26.5 | 35.5 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | | | | | | | | 6.7 | 9 | 12.1 | 12.7 | 15.2 | 16.1 | 11.8 | 14.9 | 22.5 | 27 |
| HAITI | 3.6 | 4.7 | 7 | 6.5 | 11.8 | 13.5 | 12.3 | 20.5 | 24 | 32.3 | 32.8 | 34.1 | 31 | 33 | 41.7 | 51.5 | 46.5 |
| KIRIBATI | | | | | | | | 3.6 | 3.4 | 5.5 | 4.5 | 5 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 5 | 7.9 |
| LAOS | 41.7 | 35.9 | 42.3 | 29.6 | 14.9 | 4.4 | 5 | 11.8 | 12 | 14 | 13.3 | 11.3 | 10.7 | 12.3 | 13.8 | 17.9 | 20.8 |
| LESOTHO | 2.8 | 3.2 | 5 | 6.5 | 8.7 | 11.9 | 12.8 | 16.3 | 19.9 | 28.6 | 31.2 | 32.3 | 34.7 | 34 | 31.3 | 39.1 | 38.8 |
| MALAWI | 9.8 | 11.1 | 11.6 | 14.6 | 16.3 | 17.3 | 17.2 | 24 | 30 | 36.4 | 38.1 | 37.2 | 34.7 | 39.7 | 34.9 | 44.8 | 56 |
| MALDIVES | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 2.9 | 4.7 |
| MALI | 9.2 | 11.9 | 12.9 | 18.9 | 24.4 | 23.1 | 25.5 | 35.4 | 49.5 | 76.9 | 63 | 55 | 52.8 | 59.9 | 61.1 | 89 | 86.6 |
| MAURITANIA | 4.6 | 6.4 | 7.8 | 10.6 | 11.4 | 13.1 | 13.6 | 18.6 | 24.5 | 28.8 | 37.7 | 33.7 | 32.6 | 31.3 | 35.9 | 43.8 | 47 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | | | | 0.3 | 4.1 | 7.2 | 12.3 | 26.9 | 33.2 | 37.8 | 46.3 | 49.8 | 43.8 | 47.1 | 50.7 | 69.9 | 72.8 |
| NEPAL | 10.9 | 10.3 | 12.5 | 14 | 24.6 | 20.5 | 26.9 | 30.6 | 38.1 | 50.5 | 52.7 | 63.8 | 68 | 68.4 | 70.3 | 74.8 | 84.4 |
| NIGER | 12 | 14.5 | 14 | 24.4 | 29.1 | 27.7 | 29.9 | 38.4 | 47.3 | 62.1 | 59.2 | 68.3 | 60.8 | 61.1 | 75.6 | 92 | 93.7 |

SOURCE: OECD GEOGRAPHIC FLOWS: 1978,1982,1984,1988,1989

TABLE I: LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES:TECHNICAL COOPERATION AID 1971-1987

| | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| RWANDA | 13.7 | 16.2 | 19.3 | 23.4 | 31.5 | 32 | 41 | 42.8 | 50.9 | 54.5 | 53.2 | 49.6 | 53.8 | 50.1 | 60.9 | 66.4 | 76.7 |
| SAOTOME/PRINCIPE | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 4 | 3.3 |
| SIERRE LEONE | 4.9 | 4.2 | 5.6 | 4.2 | 7.8 | 10.4 | 10 | 13.2 | 14.9 | 21.4 | 21.7 | 21.3 | 19.2 | 19.4 | 22.2 | 29.6 | 28.4 |
| SOMALIA | 10.2 | 9.7 | 12 | 12.7 | 19.4 | 15.9 | 19.1 | 21.5 | 32.1 | 92.9 | 103 | 92 | 114 | 107 | 131.6 | 160 | 146.4 |
| SUDAN | 6.1 | 21.6 | 19.2 | 15.5 | 28 | 30.9 | 37.5 | 60.3 | 69.1 | 102.4 | 132 | 117.9 | 128 | 122 | 203.8 | 161 | 147.3 |
| TANZANIA | 23.8 | 34.7 | 41.3 | 47.6 | 60.2 | 76.7 | 80.1 | 106 | 138 | 172.6 | 176 | 180.7 | 174 | 139 | 141.4 | 163 | 186.1 |
| TOGO | 9.1 | 11.1 | 13.3 | 14.8 | 17 | 16.8 | 18.8 | 21.8 | 25 | 28.9 | 30.4 | 30.3 | 27.5 | 29.9 | 30 | 42.3 | 44.3 |
| TUVALU | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.8 | 2.6 |
| UGANDA | 17.8 | 16.1 | 11.9 | 7.9 | 9.1 | 8.4 | 7.5 | 12 | 16.4 | 21 | 33.8 | 29.5 | 34 | 32.2 | 36.7 | 49.9 | 56.8 |
| VANUATU | | | | | | | | 2.7 | 22.4 | 24.7 | 17.2 | 16.1 | 16 | 13.1 | 12.3 | 15.6 | 15.5 |
| W. SOMOA | | | | | | | | 6.8 | 6 | 9.8 | 10.8 | 7.6 | 7.3 | 6.9 | 7.6 | 8.2 | 13.3 |
| YEMEN ARAB REP. | 3 | 4.8 | 6.5 | 9.9 | 16.8 | 15.5 | 25 | 32.8 | 39.5 | 50.3 | 60.6 | 64.7 | 59.9 | 61.5 | 56.4 | 75.7 | 77.9 |
| TOTALS LDC TC | 313.5 | 363 | 421.5 | 487.8 | 634 | 647 | 670 | 944 | 1209 | 1535 | 1622 | 1588 | 1623 | 1613 | 1850 | 2165 | 2383 |
| TOTAL@1986 PRICES & EXCHANGE RATES | 923.1 | 962 | 966.7 | 1021 | 1148 | 1139 | 1083 | 1311 | 1516 | 1756 | 1925 | 1924 | 1971 | 2001 | 2271 | 2165 | 2081 |
| %INC/DEC PRIOR YR. | | 4.2% | 0.5% | 5.6% | 12.4% | -0.8% | -4.9% | 21.0% | 15.6% | 15.8% | 9.6% | -0.1% | 2.5% | 1.5% | 13.5% | -4.7% | -3.9% |
| DEFLATOR1986 base | 33.96 | 37.8 | 43.6 | 47.77 | 55.2 | 56.8 | 61.9 | 72 | 79.8 | 87.39 | 84.3 | 82.55 | 82.3 | 80.6 | 81.46 | 100 | 114.5 |
| AVER 71/79 | 1119 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| AVER 80/87 | 2012 | 79.8% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| TOTAL ODA (net disb | 2266 | 2787 | 3482 | 4037 | 6423 | 5984 | 6313 | 7008 | 7517 | 8096 | 8092 | 8929 | 8603 | 9038 | 10379 | 9681 | 9445 |
| TC AS % TOTAL AID | 41% | 35% | 28% | 25% | 18% | 19% | 17% | 19% | 20% | 22% | 24% | 22% | 23% | 22% | 22% | 22% | 22% |
| TC TOTAL ALL DEVELOPING COUNTRIES | | | | 12035 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| LDC TC % TOTAL TC | | | | 20 % | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

SOURCE: OECD GEOGRAPHIC FLOWS: 1978,1982,1984,1988,1989

TABLE II: LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES: TOTAL ODA (net disbursements)

| TOTAL ODA (net disbursements) (all sources combined) | 1971 $million | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFGHANISTAN | 47.4 | 56 | 57.1 | 31.7 | 75.2 | 78.5 | 101 | 101 | 107.8 | 32.2 | 23.2 | 9.3 | 13.5 | 6.7 | 16.8 | 2.3 | 45.2 |
| BANGLADESH | 15.4 | 223.8 | 422 | 487 | 1018 | 532 | 766 | 990 | 1161 | 1283 | 1104 | 1341 | 1049 | 1201 | 1152 | 1456 | 1637 |
| BENIN | 29.3 | 20.1 | 26.6 | 33.2 | 54.4 | 54.5 | 49.3 | 61.1 | 84.6 | 91.1 | 81.6 | 80.6 | 86.4 | 77.6 | 95.8 | 138 | 135.7 |
| BHUTAN | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 5.8 | 8.3 | 9.8 | 11.3 | 13 | 17.9 | 24.1 | 40 | 42 |
| BOTSWANA | 17.7 | 31.5 | 36.6 | 36.6 | 51.3 | 47.6 | 47.5 | 69 | 99.7 | 106 | 96.9 | 102 | 104 | 103 | 96.5 | 102 | 154.2 |
| BURKINO FASO | 28.8 | 34.4 | 56.9 | 90.6 | 89.1 | 84.1 | 110 | 159 | 198.4 | 212 | 217 | 213 | 184 | 189 | 197.4 | 284 | 283.1 |
| BURMA | 40.9 | 44.4 | 70.8 | 67.6 | 58.2 | 71 | 102 | 274 | 363.7 | 309 | 283 | 319 | 302 | 275 | 355.7 | 416 | 364.6 |
| BURUNDI | 21.8 | 25.9 | 26.9 | 33.5 | 48.1 | 44.5 | 48.2 | 74.5 | 94.8 | 117 | 122 | 127 | 140 | 141 | 142.6 | 188 | 192.6 |
| CAPE VERDE | | | | | 8.8 | 24.9 | 27.2 | 35.7 | 33.4 | 64.4 | 50.3 | 54.9 | 59.9 | 63.9 | 69.7 | 109 | 86.2 |
| CAR | 15.6 | 25.6 | 25.7 | 35.5 | 56.8 | 38.1 | 42.1 | 51.3 | 83.6 | 111 | 102 | 89.7 | 92.9 | 114 | 104.3 | 139 | 173.3 |
| CHAD | 30.6 | 30.9 | 42.2 | 65.2 | 65.2 | 62.3 | 83.1 | 125 | 85.6 | 35.3 | 59.7 | 64.7 | 95.3 | 115 | 181.7 | 165 | 198.3 |
| COMOROS | 8.8 | 10.2 | 17.6 | 27.3 | 21.7 | 25.3 | 12.2 | 12.8 | 16.7 | 43.3 | 46.6 | 38.9 | 38.2 | 41 | 47.6 | 46.3 | 53.1 |
| DEM. YEMEN | 4.4 | 5.6 | 7.5 | 10.3 | 51.5 | 170 | 119 | 91.4 | 76.0 | 100 | 86.9 | 143 | 106 | 103 | 113.6 | 71.6 | 79.9 |
| DJIBOUTI | 10.6 | 13.4 | 19.5 | 29.1 | 34.4 | 28.1 | 46.2 | 100 | 23.2 | 73.1 | 64.5 | 58.9 | 65.6 | 102 | 81.4 | 115 | 91.6 |
| EQUAT GUINEA | | | 1 | 0.6 | 2.2 | 0.4 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 2.7 | 9.3 | 10.2 | 14 | 11.1 | 15 | 17.2 | 21.7 | 42.7 |
| ETHIOPIA | 47.3 | 47.6 | 66.7 | 120 | 135 | 141 | 116 | 140 | 174.4 | 212 | 245 | 200 | 339 | 364 | 714.8 | 636 | 635 |
| GAMBIA | 3.6 | 5 | 6.5 | 8.8 | 8.1 | 11.9 | 21.5 | 35.5 | 36.6 | 54.8 | 68.2 | 47.6 | 42 | 53.6 | 50.1 | 101 | 103.5 |
| GUINEA | 9.6 | 4.8 | 11.3 | 8.9 | 15.2 | 12 | 22.4 | 60.3 | 60.8 | 89.6 | 107 | 90.1 | 67.5 | 123 | 119.2 | 175 | 214 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 0.2 | | | 1 | 18.6 | 22.5 | 37.7 | 50.1 | 52.7 | 59.5 | 65.2 | 65.2 | 64.2 | 55.2 | 57.7 | 71 | 104.4 |
| HAITI | 6.2 | 6.8 | 8.2 | 14.2 | 59.3 | 71.8 | 87.6 | 92.8 | 92.6 | 105 | 109 | 158 | 190 | 286 | 272.6 | 284 | 258.4 |
| KIRIBATI | | | | | 5.7 | 4.1 | 6.2 | 10.7 | 9.1 | 19.2 | 15.3 | 15.1 | 16.8 | 11.9 | 12 | 13.4 | 18.4 |
| LAOS | 72.4 | 66.8 | 75.9 | 60.1 | 38.8 | 28.5 | 32.4 | 71.8 | 54.1 | 40.9 | 35 | 38.3 | 29.7 | 34.1 | 37 | 48.2 | 58.9 |
| LESOTHO | 16.7 | 14.1 | 14.2 | 20.9 | 30.1 | 30.1 | 38.8 | 50.1 | 64.2 | 94.4 | 104 | 93.4 | 108 | 101 | 94.2 | 87.8 | 108.4 |
| MALAWI | 31.6 | 36.2 | 29.7 | 41.7 | 63.8 | 63.3 | 79.4 | 98.5 | 141.8 | 143 | 138 | 121 | 117 | 159 | 113 | 198 | 280.6 |
| MALDIVES | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 3.2 | 4.4 | 2.6 | 8.2 | 6.6 | 21.4 | 12.8 | 5.4 | 11 | 5.6 | 9.2 | 16.3 | 19.1 |
| MALI | 30.4 | 38.3 | 70.4 | 104 | 145 | 89 | 113 | 163 | 196.5 | 267 | 230 | 210 | 215 | 320 | 379.9 | 372 | 364.5 |
| MAURITANIA | 12.2 | 9.1 | 25.2 | 46.8 | 58.8 | 168 | 160 | 223 | 172.3 | 176 | 214 | 187 | 176 | 175 | 206.7 | 221 | 177.7 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.7 | 21.6 | 71.5 | 80.3 | 105 | 145.8 | 169 | 144 | 208 | 211 | 259 | 300.1 | 421 | 649.2 |
| NEPAL | 23.9 | 30.2 | 35.4 | 32.3 | 45.7 | 50.2 | 80 | 76.8 | 136.8 | 163 | 181 | 201 | 201 | 198 | 236.3 | 301 | 344.6 |
| NIGER | 38 | 43.1 | 70.4 | 136 | 141 | 129 | 96.8 | 157 | 174.0 | 170 | 193 | 258 | 175 | 161 | 304.5 | 307 | 348 |

SOURCE: OECD GEOGRAPHIC FLOWS..: 1989,1988,1984,1982,1978

TABLE II: LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES: TOTAL ODA (net disbursements)

| | 1971 | 1972 | 1973 | 1974 | 1975 | 1976 | 1977 | 1978 | 1979 | 1980 | 1981 | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| RWANDA | 25.2 | 30.1 | 38.9 | 45.6 | 90.8 | 79.3 | 95.9 | 125 | 148.3 | 155 | 154 | 151 | 149 | 165 | 181.2 | 211 | 242.8 |
| SAOTOME/PRINCIPE | | | | | 0.9 | 11.7 | 3.1 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 3.9 | 6.1 | 9.9 | 11.6 | 11.3 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 17.9 |
| SIERRE LEONE | 10.5 | 10.3 | 14.3 | 8.7 | 18.1 | 15.1 | 26.2 | 40.2 | 53.2 | 90.9 | 60.1 | 82.2 | 66 | 60.8 | 65.9 | 87.1 | 68.3 |
| SOMALIA | 30.7 | 23.7 | 35.7 | 31.9 | 152 | 109 | 293 | 211 | 181.2 | 433 | 375 | 462 | 343 | 350 | 353.3 | 511 | 580.2 |
| SUDAN | 10.5 | 37.2 | 42.6 | 54.4 | 289 | 383 | 231 | 318 | 570.5 | 583 | 632 | 740 | 962 | 622 | 1129 | 945 | 901.6 |
| TANZANIA | 62.4 | 61.3 | 100 | 155 | 295 | 268 | 340 | 424 | 588.3 | 679 | 703 | 684 | 594 | 558 | 486.9 | 681 | 882.2 |
| TOGO | 19.3 | 21.6 | 25.8 | 36.9 | 41.8 | 43 | 64.2 | 103 | 109.7 | 91 | 62.9 | 77.2 | 112 | 110 | 114 | 174 | 123.2 |
| TUVALU | | | | | 0.1 | 3 | 2.4 | 2.9 | 4.1 | 4.9 | 5.4 | 6.2 | 4.2 | 5.5 | 3.3 | 4.4 | 25.7 |
| UGANDA | 31.8 | 29.5 | 14.8 | 11.3 | 39 | 25.2 | 22.2 | 21.3 | 42.3 | 114 | 136 | 133 | 137 | 163 | 182.1 | 198 | 275.9 |
| VANUATU | | | | | 2.2 | 31 | 14.6 | 18.8 | 38.4 | 42.4 | 30.4 | 26 | 26.9 | 24.5 | 21.8 | 24.4 | 51 |
| W. SOMOA | | | | 0.5 | 13.4 | 11.7 | 20.6 | 20.2 | 29.9 | 25.7 | 25 | 22.8 | 26.7 | 20.2 | 19.4 | 23.3 | 35.8 |
| YEMEN ARAB REP. | 14.9 | 14.8 | 20.7 | 39.3 | 178 | 259 | 262 | 269 | 272.9 | 472 | 411 | 413 | 328 | 326 | 282.9 | 263 | 349.2 |
| TOTAL ODA | 769.7 | 1053.2 | 1518 | 1929 | 3545 | 3400 | 3906 | 5048 | 5997 | 7075 | 6818 | 7371 | 7083 | 7285 | 8455 | 9681 | 10818 |
| TOTAL @ 1986 PRICES AND EXCHANGE RATES | 2266.5 | 2787 | 3482 | 4037 | 6423 | 5984 | 6313 | 7008 | 7517 | 8096 | 8092 | 8929 | 8603 | 9038 | 10379 | 9681 | 9445 |
| %INC/DEC PRIOR YR. | | 23% | 25% | 16% | 59% | -7% | 5% | 11% | 0.1 | 8% | 0% | 10% | -4% | 5% | 15% | -7% | -2% |
| DEFLATOR | 33.96 | 37.79 | 43.6 | 47.8 | 55.2 | 56.8 | 61.9 | 72 | 79.8 | 87.4 | 84.3 | 82.6 | 82.3 | 80.6 | 81.46 | 100 | 114.5 |
| AVER 71/79 | 5090.9 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| AVER 80/87 | 9032.8 | 77% | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

SOURCE: OECD GEOGRAPHIC FLOWS..: 1989,1988,1984,1982,1978

LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES: TC AS A % OF TOTAL ODA, 1987

| ODA/TC %s (net disbursement (all sources combined) | ODA 1987 | TC 1987 | % TC |
|---|---|---|---|
| AFGHANISTAN | 45 | 29.3 | 65% |
| BANGLADESH | 1637 | 164.4 | 10% |
| BENIN | 136 | 135.5 | 100% |
| BHUTAN | 42 | 9.9 | 24% |
| BOTSWANA | 154 | 49.7 | 32% |
| BURKINO FASO | 283 | 99 | 35% |
| BURMA | 365 | 55.4 | 15% |
| BURUNDI | 193 | 51.3 | 27% |
| CAPE VERDE | 86 | 27.1 | 31% |
| CAR | 173 | 49.1 | 28% |
| CHAD | 198 | 51.8 | 26% |
| COMOROS | 53 | 19.4 | 37% |
| DEM. YEMEN | 80 | 8.7 | 11% |
| DJIBOUTI | 92 | 37.8 | 41% |
| EQUAT GUINEA | 43 | 6.6 | 15% |
| ETHIOPIA | 635 | 146.3 | 23% |
| GAMBIA | 104 | 21.4 | 21% |
| GUINEA | 214 | 35.5 | 17% |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | 104 | 27 | 26% |
| HAITI | 258 | 46.5 | 18% |
| KIRIBATI | 18 | 7.9 | 43% |
| LAOS | 59 | 20.8 | 35% |
| LESOTHO | 108 | 38.8 | 36% |
| MALAWI | 281 | 56 | 20% |
| MALDIVES | 19 | 4.7 | 25% |
| MALI | 365 | 86.6 | 24% |
| MAURITANIA | 178 | 47 | 26% |
| MOZAMBIQUE | 649 | 72.8 | 11% |
| NEPAL | 345 | 84.4 | 24% |
| NIGER | 348 | 93.7 | 27% |
| RWANDA | 243 | 76.7 | 32% |
| SAOTOME/PRINCIPE | 18 | 3.3 | 18% |
| SIERRE LEONE | 68 | 28.4 | 42% |
| SOMALIA | 580 | 146.4 | 25% |
| SUDAN | 902 | 147.3 | 16% |
| TANZANIA | 882 | 186.1 | 21% |
| TOGO | 123 | 44.3 | 36% |
| TUVALU | 26 | 2.6 | 10% |
| UGANDA | 276 | 56.8 | 21% |
| VANUATU | 51 | 15.5 | 30% |
| W. SOMOA | 36 | 13.3 | 37% |
| YEMEN ARAB REP. | 349 | 77.9 | 22% |
| TOTALS | 10818 | 2383 | 22% |

TABLE III: RANKING OF LDCS BY ECONOMIC AND AID INDICATORS

| COUNTRY | TC $ PER CAP. | COUNTRY | TC % OF EXPORTS | COUNTRY | TC % OF GNP | COUNTRY | GNP PER CAP. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BHUTAN | $1 | DEM. YEMEN | 2% | BHUTAN | 1% | ETHIOPIA | $130 |
| BURMA | $1 | AFGANISTAN | 5% | DEM. YEMEN | 1% | BHUTAN | $150 |
| BANGLADESH | $2 | BOTSWANA | 7% | BANGLADESH | 1% | CHAD | $150 |
| AFGANISTAN | $2 | BHUTAN | 7% | UGANDA | 1% | BANGLADESH | $160 |
| ETHIOPIA | $3 | GUINEA | 8% | YEMEN ARAB REP | 2% | NEPAL | $160 |
| UGANDA | $4 | MAURITANIA | 12% | SUDAN | 2% | MALAWI | $160 |
| DEM. YEMEN | $4 | MALDIVES | 13% | HAITI | 2% | GUINEA-BISSAU | $160 |
| NEPAL | $5 | BANGLADESH | 15% | SIERRE LEONE | 2% | MOZAMBIQUE | $170 |
| MOZAMBIQUE | $5 | TOGO | 16% | ETHIOPIA | 3% | LAO PDR | $170 |
| GUINEA | $5 | HAITI | 18% | MOZAMBIQUE | 3% | TANZANIA | $180 |
| LAO PDR | $5 | MALAWI | 21% | NEPAL | 3% | BURKINO FASO | $190 |
| SUDAN | $6 | SIERRE LEONE | 24% | LAO PDR | 3% | EQ. GUINEA | $200 |
| MALAWI | $7 | BURMA | 25% | RWANDA | 4% | VANUATU | $200 |
| SIERRE LEONE | $7 | UGANDA | 26% | BURUNDI | 4% | MALI | $210 |
| HAITI | $8 | NIGER | 26% | BOTSWANA | 4% | GAMBIA | $220 |
| TANZANIA | $8 | SUDAN | 31% | TANZANIA | 4% | AFGANISTAN | $220 |
| YEMEN ARAB REP. | $9 | CAR | 32% | MALAWI | 4% | BURUNDI | $250 |
| CHAD | $10 | EQ. GUINEA | 33% | TOGO | 5% | UGANDA | $260 |
| BURUNDI | $10 | SAOTOME/PRINCIF | 34% | MALI | 5% | NIGER | $260 |
| MALI | $11 | ETHIOPIA | 36% | NIGER | 5% | SAOTOME/PRINC | $280 |
| BURKINO FASO | $12 | BURUNDI | 37% | SAOTOME/PRINCII | 5% | TOGO | $290 |
| RWANDA | $12 | MALI | 40% | CAR | 6% | SOMALIA | $290 |
| NIGER | $14 | CHAD | 43% | MALDIVES | 6% | SIERRE LEONE | $300 |
| TOGO | $14 | GAMBIA | 48% | MAURITANIA | 6% | RWANDA | $300 |
| SAOTOME/PRINCIPE | $15 | BURKINO FASO | 49% | BURKINO FASO | 6% | MALDIVES | $300 |
| MALDIVES | $17 | TANZANIA | 53% | CHAD | 7% | GUINEA | $300 |
| EQ. GUINEA | $17 | NEPAL | 56% | LESOTHO | 7% | BENIN | $310 |
| CAR | $18 | RWANDA | 58% | EQ. GUINEA | 8% | SUDAN | $330 |
| LESOTHO | $24 | LAO PDR | 69% | SOMALIA | 9% | CAR | $330 |
| MAURITANIA | $25 | COMOROS | 78% | BENIN | 10% | HAITI | $360 |
| SOMALIA | $26 | MOZAMBIQUE | 82% | GAMBIA | 12% | LESOTHO | $370 |
| GAMBIA | $27 | VANUATU | 91% | COMOROS | 12% | COMOROS | $370 |
| GUINEA-BISSAU | $29 | WESTERN SOMOA | 111% | DJIBOUTI | 13% | DEM. YEMEN | $420 |
| BENIN | $32 | BENIN | 112% | WESTERN SOMOA | 15% | MAURITANIA | $440 |
| BOTSWANA | $45 | SOMALIA | 124% | CAPE VERDE | 16% | KIRIBATI | $480 |
| COMOROS | $46 | DJIBOUTI | 151% | GUINEA-BISSAU | 19% | CAPE VERDE | $500 |
| CAPE VERDE | $79 | KIRIBATI | 158% | KIRIBATI | 25% | WESTERN SOMO/ | $550 |
| WESTERN SOMOA | $80 | GUINEA-BISSAU | 169% | VANUATU | 52% | YEMEN ARAB RE | $590 |
| DJIBOUTI | $102 | LESOTHO | 185% | TUVALU | 54% | TUVALU | $600 |
| VANUATU | $103 | YEMEN ARAB REP. | 410% | AFGANISTAN | | DJIBOUTI | $800 |
| KIRIBATI | $120 | CAPE VERDE | 542% | GUINEA | | BOTSWANA | $1050 |
| TUVALU | $325 | TUVALU | | | | | |

SOURCES: WORLD DEVELOPMENT REPORT 1989; UNDP: S.M.A.R.T. PROFILES, 1989; OECD GEO. DIST. FIN. FLOWS 1987

TABLE IV: TECHNICAL COOPERATION BY SECTOR (1987)

| COUNTRY | TOTAL (USD 1,000) | GEN.DEVELOPMENT ISSUES (%) | NATURAL RESOURCES (%) | AGRICULTURE, FOREST., FISH. (%) | TRADE, INDUSTRY (%) | TRANSPORT & COMMUNICATION (%) | HEALTH (%) | EDUCATION (%) | OTHER (%) | REMARKS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFGHANISTAN (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| BANGLADESH | 115,590 | | | | | | | | | |
| BENIN | 43,310 | 4 | 9 | 17 | 3 | 7 | 15 | 31 | 14 | |
| BHUTAN (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| BOTSWANA | 63,706 | 5 | 15 | 14 | 5 | 6 | 9 | 23 | 23 | EMPLOYMENT 17% |
| BURKINA FASO | 56,314 | 6 | 6 | 50 | 1 | 2 | 12 | 5 | 18 | |
| BURMA (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| BURUNDI | 59,671 | 3 | 8 | 31 | 1 | 8 | 11 | 16 | 22 | SC. & TECN. 10% |
| CAPE VERDE (a) | 34,577 | 7 | 7 | 41 | 0 | 20 | 8 | 9 | 8 | |
| CENT. AFR. REP. | 65,944 | 40 | 3 | 7 | 0 | 4 | 13 | 29 | 4 | |
| CHAD | 154,503 | 15 | 7 | 16 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 48 | HUMAN SET. 34% |
| COMOROS | 29,538 | 29 | 4 | 15 | 0 | 6 | 12 | 28 | 6 | |
| DEM. YEMEN (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| DJIBOUTI | 44,421 | 4 | 7 | 7 | 1 | 4 | 9 | 45 | 24 | |
| EQU. GUINEA | 30,922 | 16 | 2 | 24 | 0 | 8 | 21 | 19 | 10 | |
| ETHIOPIA (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| GAMBIA | 26,051 | 13 | 9 | 35 | 1 | 5 | 14 | 15 | 8 | |
| GUINEA (a) | | | | | | | | | | |
| GUINEA BISSAU | 34,046 | 19 | 10 | 31 | 9 | 3 | 6 | 9 | 13 | |
| HAITI | 84,196 | 4 | 10 | 35 | 7 | 5 | 14 | 11 | 14 | |
| KIRIBATI (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| LAOS | 22,246 | 31 | 7 | 20 | 11 | 8 | 8 | 11 | 4 | |
| LESOTHO | 74,040 | 6 | 12 | 25 | 2 | 15 | 7 | 28 | 5 | |
| MALAWI | 36,070 | 8 | 3 | 20 | 9 | 8 | 25 | 12 | 15 | |
| MALDIVES (a) | 6,298 | 2 | 0 | 7 | 1 | 20 | 18 | 16 | 36 | EMPLOYMENT 31% |
| MALI | 122,622 | 8 | 10 | 28 | 1 | 7 | 15 | 11 | 20 | EMERG. REL. 9% |
| MAURITANIA (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| MOZAMBIQUE (a) | 112,614 | 21 | 6 | 25 | 3 | 16 | 12 | 7 | 10 | |

TABLE IV: TECHNICAL COOPERATION PERSONNEL BY SECTOR
(Long-Term Experts)

| Country | Year | Total Number | Education (%) | Health (%) | Agriculture Forestries Fisheries (%) | Trade Industry (%) | Natural Resources (%) | Public Works Transport & Communication (%) | Other Sectors or non Class. (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Benin | 1988 | 435 | 22 | 24 | 18 | - | 11 - | 16 | 9 |
| Burundi | 1988 | 727 | 36 | 12 | 28 | 5 | 6 | n.a. | 13 |
| Cape Verde | 1988 | 85 | 2 | 12 | 36 | - | 5 - | n.a. | 55 |
| Central Afr. Rep. | 1988 | 465 | 37 | 15 | 8 | 2 | 9 | 10 | 19 |
| Chad | 1988 | 238 | 16 | 15 | 24 | 7 | 2 | 15 | 21 |
| Comoros | 1988 | 162 | 44 | 11 | 14 | n.a. | n.a. | 15 | 16 |
| Equatorial Guinea | 1988 | 300 | 38 | 30 | 3 | 0 | 7 | 11 | 11 |
| Gambia | 1988 | 171 | 11 | 19 | 15 | n.a. | 6 | 5 | 44 |
| Guinea | 1988 | 643 | 40 | 9 | 15 | 1 | 17 | 7 | 11 |
| Guinea Bissau | 1986 | 489 | 22 | 31 | 14 | - | 13 - | 2 | 18 |
| Mali | 1988 | 804 | 25 | 17 | 23 | - | 23 - | 7 | 5 |
| Mauritania | 1987 | 846 | 49 | 21 | 13 | 0 | 4 | n.a. | 13 |
| Mozambique | 1985 | 3705 | 6 | 8 | 22 | n.a. | 9 | 13 | 32 |
| Sao Tome | 1988 | 124 | 44 | 40 | 9 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | 7 |

Source: UNDP Surveys.

TABLE IV: TECHNICAL COOPERATION BY SECTOR (1987)
(CONTINUED)

| COUNTRY | TOTAL (USD 1,000) | GEN.DEVELOPMENT ISSUES (%) | NATURAL RESOURCES (%) | AGRICULTURE, FOREST., FISH. (%) | TRADE, INDUSTRY (%) | TRANSPORT & COMMUNICATION (%) | HEALTH (%) | EDUCATION (%) | OTHER (%) | REMARKS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| NEPAL | 97,466 | 8 | 22 | 23 | 2 | 10 | 13 | 8 | 15 | |
| NIGER | 169,640 | 8 | 19 | 40 | 1 | 2 | 7 | 14 | 9 | |
| RWANDA | 183,970 | 8 | 15 | 19 | 4 | 16 | 18 | 11 | 9 | |
| SAO TOME (a) | 11,069 | 2 | 0 | 51 | 0 | 9 | 14 | 21 | 3 | |
| SIERRA LEONE | 24,876 | 13 | 2 | 18 | 2 | 12 | 28 | 16 | 9 | |
| SOMALIA | 97,235 | 5 | 4 | 25 | 11 | 2 | 17 | 25 | 11 | |
| SOUDAN (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| TANZANIA | 272,489 | 3 | 8 | 27 | 14 | 16 | 16 | 4 | 12 | |
| TOGO | 46,801 | 18 | 8 | 28 | 2 | 3 | 14 | 16 | 11 | |
| TUVALU (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| UGANDA | 79,140 | 12 | 6 | 31 | 1 | 2 | 23 | 18 | 7 | |
| VANUATU (b) | | | | | | | | | | |
| WESTERN SAMOA | 12,427 | 28 | 3 | 30 | 0 | 10 | 6 | 17 | 6 | |
| YEMEN ARAB REP. | 109,948 | 1 | 2 | 24 | 0 | 1 | 20 | 34 | 18 | |

(a) : date for 1986

(b) No recent date

Source : Development Cooperation Reports, UNDP

**TECHNICAL COOPERATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT**

**OF THE**

**LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES**

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SECOND UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES:

Preparatory process for the Conference

# REPORT OF THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL MEETING ON THE ESCAP LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES IN PREPARATION FOR THE UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Contribution by the Economic and Social Commission
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# REPORT OF THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL MEETING ON THE ESCAP LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES IN PREPARATION FOR THE UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE ON THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Bangkok, 19-23 February 1990

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## I. ORGANIZATION OF THE MEETING

1. The Intergovernmental Meeting on the ESCAP Least Developed Countries in Preparation for the United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries was held at Bangkok from 19 to 23 February 1990.

2. The Meeting was attended by representatives of the following members and associate members: Afghanistan, Australia, Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, France, India, Indonesia, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Japan, Kiribati, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Maldives, Myanmar, Nepal, Netherlands, Pakistan, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Samoa, Thailand, Tuvalu, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United States of America, and Vanuatu.

3. Representatives of the following United Nations bodies and specialized agencies attended the Meeting: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, United Nations Development Programme, International Labour Organisation, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, World Health Organization, the World Bank, and the Asian Development Bank.

### Opening of the Meeting

4. His Excellency Mr. Chuan Leekpai, Deputy Prime Minister, Royal Thai Government, inaugurated the Meeting. He noted the initiative taken by ESCAP in organizing the Intergovernmental Meeting as part of the preparation for the United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries to be held in Paris in September 1990. The Conference would take stock of the developments over the past decade as well as agree on new concerted action to accelerate the development process of the countries concerned. Not long ago, Thailand had been treading a path similar to that followed by the least developed countries. However, through its own endeavours, supplemented by bilateral and international assistance and co-operation, Thailand had been able to diversify its economy from a traditionally agrarian-based to an increasingly industrialized economy. Having grown up in an interdependent world, Thailand therefore attached great importance to the principle of international co-operation. Although still a recipient country, Thailand had striven in the past decade to render assistance to other developing countries, including least developed countries, through its Thai International Co-operation Programme (previously known as the Thai Aid Programme), Tripartite Co-operation Plan and Food Aid Programme.

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5. The Deputy Prime Minister expressed the hope that the Inter-governmental Meeting would be constructive in promoting further co-operation for a better world, in which, by the end of the decade, the term "least developed countries" would appear only in the history books.

6. The Executive Secretary of ESCAP, in his opening statement, which was read by the Deputy Executive Secretary, noted with concern that the performance of the least developed countries of the ESCAP region fell far short of reflecting the dynamism associated with the Asian and Pacific developing region as a whole The reasons for that disparity were not lack of effort on the part of the region's least developed countries but the much more difficult conditions and constraints faced by them. The problems were much more structural in nature and were often beyond the traditional remedies of fiscal, monetary and price reforms, which many of the least developed countries had undertaken in good measure. In many of those countries, the expenditure on social services had been severely cut back, school enrolment at both primary and post-primary levels was showing decline or stagnation, while nutrition, especially of women and children, remained inadequate and mortality rates high. As a result, the neglect of the human aspect of development was a cause for much greater concern than even the low investment rates in physical capital, which were often maintained at the expense of depletion in human capital.

7. The environmental problems faced by the least developed countries were enormous and had as yet received inadequate attention by the policy makers in the least developed countries, who were preoccupied in dealing with problems of short-term economic management. Population pressure on land was denuding the already inadequate forest cover and increasing the hazards of desertification, while soil fertility was being eroded by inappropriate farming practices. With primary commodities as their main exports, many least developed countries had to resort to increasing exploitation of their natural resources to maintain their foreign exchange earnings in the face of falling commodity prices and rising agricultural protectionism. Added to those were the threats of global warming and the greenhouse effect, which, according to some forecasts, endangered the very existence of some of the least developed countries of the region. While many of the concerns relating to the environment could be dealt with by national efforts, in order to strike a better balance between population and natural resources and to minimize the effects of natural disasters, dealing

/with

with many other concerns, such as those relating to improvement in commodity prices, rising sea level, water sharing and flood control, would require sustained efforts at the regional and international levels.

8. The Executive Secretary felt that there was a need to discern the shape of the challenges ahead and to contribute to the formulation of the strategies to be pursued to meet those challenges in the 1990s with the combined efforts of the region's least developed countries and the world community, including the resurgent developing countries of the ESCAP region. Therefore there was a need for reorientation of development strategies and a reassessment of the resources required to ensure economically efficient, socially just and environmentally sound growth in the least developed countries.

9. In view of the inadequate resource inflows to the least developed countries in the 1980s, the Executive Secretary called for a reappraisal of the foreign aid policies pursued in the 1980s and a renewed commitment to a substantive increase in net official development assistance flows in real terms to the least developed countries; there should be greater emphasis on improved modalities and co-ordination, and their use in areas such as physical infrastructure, education, health, poverty alleviation and environmental protection. The enhancement of such flows would also facilitate the inflow of foreign direct investment, which would in turn facilitate technology transfer and industrial restructuring. The least developed countries would also require major assistance in the critical areas of debt relief and market access for their exports, as well as technology transfers and other needed technical assistance. In order to raise their creditworthiness and be in a position to repay their outstanding debt, the least developed countries should have greater market access. That would be of particular significance in the context of the emerging trading blocs which were taking shape, for example in Europe and North America.

10. Increasing attention also needed to be paid to the problems of greater efficiency in resource use, development of human resources and capabilities and the preservation and conservation of the environment and natural resources. The Executive Secretary further recognized that regional co-operation efforts could also play an effective role in the regeneration of the least developed economies of the region within the context of economic and technical co-operation among developing countries.

/Election

Election of officers

11. The Meeting elected Mr. Anwarul Karim Chowdhury (Bangladesh) as Chairman, Mr. Yang Guanqun (China), Mr. Baraniko Baaro (Kiribati) and Mr. Kenji Shimizu (Japan) as Vice-Chairmen. Ms. Noumea Simi (Samoa) was elected Rapporteur.

12. The Meeting adopted the following agenda:

1. Opening of the Meeting.
2. Election of officers.
3. Adoption of the agenda.
4. Report of the Expert Group Meeting in Preparation for the United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries, Bangkok, 9-13 October 1989.
5. Recommendations for appropriate national and international policies and measures for implementation to accelerate the development process in the least developed countries in the 1990s.
6. Other matters.
7. Adoption of the report.

## II. SUMMARY OF THE GENERAL DISCUSSIONS

13. The Meeting appreciated the quality of the various documents commissioned and prepared by the secretariat. A number of specific comments were made on various documents. With regard to document DP/IMLDC/2, the concerned delegations stated their countries' respective positions which were duly recorded by the secretariat which assured the Meeting that those would be appropriately reflected when the final versions of the documents were issued. The Meeting also commended the useful contribution to its deliberations made by the report of the Expert Group Meeting in Preparation for the United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries held at Bangkok from 9 to 13 October 1989. In his opening remarks, the Chairman emphasized the importance of the current Meeting as a substantial input into the collective intergovernmental preparations for the forthcoming Conference.

14. The Meeting recalled the high expectations aroused at the time of the adoption of the Substantial New Programme of Action for the 1980s for the Least Developed Countries by the first United Nations Conference on the

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Least Developed Countries, held in Paris in 1981, especially among the least developed countries, including those belonging to the Asian and Pacific region, whose number had risen from 7 to 11 during the decade. Unfortunately, it had not been possible to achieve the main objectives of the Programme as the 1980s had proved to be an unpropitious decade for the development of most developing countries, so that a renewed programme of action for the 1990s was called for.

15. The Meeting recognized that owing to structural weaknesses, which were exacerbated by natural disasters, the least developed countries of the region were unable to share the general dynamism that characterized the Asian and Pacific developing countries. They therefore required new approaches and initiatives for sustained social and economic development. Among the 11 least developed countries, 9 suffered from isolation and from being land-locked - imposed by remoteness and geography - which compounded their economic difficulties significantly. The representatives of the island and land-locked least developed countries of the region gave the Meeting a vivid account of the extraordinary difficulties faced by those countries. They drew attention especially to the impact of geography and remoteness on their fragile economies. The reduction in their isolation, and their integration with the world economy, remained major challenges for their development in the 1990s.

16. The Meeting viewed with deep concern the poor growth performance of the least developed countries in the region, which were constrained by very difficult and fast-changing internal and external conditions. Only one of the least developed countries had succeeded in achieving the 7.2 per cent annual gross domestic product growth target envisaged in the Substantial New Programme of Action. The subregion as a whole had failed to maintain the level of growth achieved during the 1970s. More alarmingly, many of the least developed countries, including those in the Pacific subregion, had suffered a decline in per capita income during the 1980s, resulting in a reduction in the average standard of living for their people.

17. The Meeting expressed disappointment at the failure of the Substantial New Programme of Action to improve the quality of life and satisfy the basic needs of the people in the region's least developed countries. The problems of poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition and urban congestion remained as intractable as ever, sapping national efforts at achieving accelerated growth and development.

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18. The Meeting noted that with poor growth performance and an unfavourable external environment, the least developed countries were not able to achieve significant structural change or diversification. Agriculture, which contributed between one third and two fifths of gross domestic product, remained narrowly based, providing employment and income to most of the working population. The low level of productivity in agriculture and the susceptibility of its output to unfavourable weather conditions rendered its contribution to gross domestic product both insufficient and uncertain. Despite significant investments in the agricultural sector, the aim of achieving food security remained elusive and per capita food production either stagnated or declined. Food grain imports had increased sharply in many countries, while others had experienced a rapid contraction in their grain surplus. Intensified efforts in the field of family planning would have improved prospects for agricultural development.

19. The Meeting further noted that industrial progress in most of the region's least developed countries was equally slow. Despite commendable efforts, a small range of manufacturing activities, confined to the processing of local raw materials, dominated the industrial sector, whose growth was constrained by the small size of domestic markets, restricted access to export markets, low capacity utilization, scarcity of fixed and working capital, slow technical progress, and a general shortage of managerial, technical and entrepreneurial skills. A growing scarcity of foreign exchange forced many countries to compress the import of vital industrial raw materials and capital goods, adversely affecting the pace and structure of their industrial development.

20. The Meeting noted with concern the serious difficulties faced by the least developed countries in achieving a more diversified and stable export base. Relying on the export of a small range of primary commodities and processed manufactures, the least developed countries' share of world trade remained negligible. In the face of rising prices for imports and exchange rate depreciation, weak international prices for their commodity exports had induced a decline in their terms of trade.

21. The Meeting noted that protectionist barriers were not conducive to production for the export market and they were neither a viable nor a sustainable option for the majority of the least developed countries. The Meeting urged that during the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations further efforts be made to reduce those barriers in ways which

would help the least developed countries to diversify their exports. While there was a continuing need on the part of the least developed countries to follow closely the changing patterns of demand in export markets and improve the processing, marketing, distribution and competitiveness of commodity exports, most attempts at diversifying into non-traditional export items, such as garments, shoes and processed agricultural products, encountered tariff and non-tariff barriers in developed country markets. Since those activities were basically labour-intensive, such restrictive measures prevented the least developed countries from pursuing one of the most effective ways of ensuring equitable development. The Meeting strongly felt that the international trading system must remain open and fair, and comply with the rules and regulations enshrined in the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT).

22. While noting the efforts of the international community, the Meeting expressed disappointment about the non-achievement of the target set in the Substantial New Programme of Action for official development assistance, whose level was only .09 per cent of the combined gross national product of Development Assistance Committee (DAC) countries instead of the 0.15 per cent envisaged in the Programme, although for a number of DAC countries either official development assistance had exceeded 0.15 per cent of gross national product or the amount had doubled over the period.[1/] Although significant advances had been made in providing international assistance in the forms of transfer of resources on highly concessional terms, technical assistance, transfer of technology and commercial policy measures, those fell far short of the development requirements of the region's least developed countries. The Meeting also noted that the effectiveness of international assistance programmes tended to be jeopardized when aid was tied, projects were over-designed and the technologies embodied in assisted projects were not appropriate. The Meeting accordingly emphasized the need for substantial increase in official development assistance, in real terms, and further improvement in the modalities for resource transfer to the least developed countries, in the 1990s. Concurrently, there would be a need to further strengthen efforts for domestic resource mobilization by most of the least developed counties.

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1/ One delegation expressed its known position with regard to the Substantial New Programme of Action target on official development assistance flows.

23. The Meeting noted with concern the rising debt burden of the least developed countries. In some instances, accumulated debt almost equalled or surpassed the gross domestic product of those countries. The ability of several least developed countries to service their debt also came under great strain as an increasing proportion of their export earnings and newly contracted external assistance had to be used to pay off maturing debts.

24. The Meeting noted that the least developed countries were keen to benefit from regional co-operation through increased trade and investment. It recognized that economic and technical co-operation among the countries of the region played an important role by providing the least developed countries with opportunities for development through growing links with other developed and developing countries. In that regard, it noted with appreciation the technical assistance provided by China, India, Indonesia, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea and Thailand to the least developed countries of the region within the framework of economic and technical co-operation among developing countries.

25. The Meeting took note of the Dhaka Declaration and its annexed Dhaka Document adopted by the Ministers of the Least Developed Countries at their meeting held at Dhaka from 10 to 12 February 1990. In the Declaration the Ministers had undertaken a comprehensive assessment of the socio-economic trends in the least developed countries during the past decade and the overall requirements of those countries for the 1990s, with a view to formulating concrete measures for implementation at the national and international levels. The Declaration also constituted the common position of least developed countries on the issues to be addressed by the second United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries.

26. The Meeting expressed extreme anxiety over the deteriorating state of the natural environment in the region's least developed countries. Rising population, increasing poverty, indiscriminate exploitation of natural resources to meet ever-growing foreign exchange requirements, inappropriate farming practices and a general lack of awareness of environmental issues had led to widespread environmental degradation in the form of soil erosion, water pollution, deforestation and global warming.

27. The Meeting noted with satisfaction the very important and far-reaching policy reforms introduced by the least developed countries in order to achieve economic resilience. In that regard, the Meeting recognized the

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continuing need to adopt flexible, consistent and coherent policies to foster growth and equitable development. The Meeting was satisfied that both private and public sectors played an important role in the development process, the balance between which was a matter a country would have to decide for itself.

28. The representative of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development informed the Meeting about the preparatory work being carried out in connection with the organization of the United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries, to be held in Paris from 3 to 14 September 1990. The representative of the United Nations Development Programme stated that in its regional assistance programme, the special needs of the least developed countries had received priority attention. The Asian Development Bank and the World Bank also informed the Meeting that their organizations accorded special attention to the needs of the least developed countries in their assistance programmes. The Meeting noted with appreciation the information provided by the Co-ordinator of the Government of France regarding the preparations being made by his Government for the 1990 United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries.

## III. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Introduction

29. The Meeting recognized that the development of the least developed countries was a difficult, complex and multi-faceted problem, with structural characteristics that were substantially different from those facing other developing countries. Nevertheless, it was convinced that a concerted effort, in which the least developed countries themselves would play the primary role but with significantly enhanced support from the international community, could transform the bleak, depressing image of the past into a bright, hopeful vision of the future for those countries. To be credible, that vision would have to be backed up by serious, unrelenting efforts to achieve definite, identifiable, regularly monitored and periodically reassessed goals on the basic issues facing the least developed countries.

30. The Meeting felt that its recommendations should concentrate with particular focus on all least developed countries of the ESCAP region. It thus did not aim at comprehensiveness, but focused on strategic issues which had proved intractable in the past or were likely to emerge and persist in

the future. That did not mean that other issues on which specific recommendations were not being made were unimportant or insignificant. The Meeting hoped that since UNCTAD, regional commissions and all other organs, organizations and bodies of the United Nations system concerned would be contributing their inputs to the seventh session of the Intergovernmental Group on the Least Developed Countries (Preparatory Committee for the second United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries), all issues would have received due consideration in the preparatory process for the second United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries to be held in Paris.

31. The Meeting welcomed the Dhaka Declaration and the annexed Dhaka Document and took those into full account in the formulation of its policy recommendations and conclusions. It also recognized that those documents would provide a valuable and positive input into the substantive preparation for the Paris Conference.

## A. Creating a supportive policy environment for renewed development of the least developed countries in the 1990s

32. While the problems facing the least developed countries were deep-seated, structural and heavily overlaid by physical and geographical constraints, they were by no means insurmountable. However, their solution did require a concerted effort to create a supportive policy environment at national, regional and international levels. The creation of such a supportive policy environment was a basic prerequisite for any sustainable development effort in those countries.

33. It was also important to point out that those efforts at various levels would have to be mutually reinforcing in order to sustain their momentum. For example, national efforts towards macro-economic policy reform unaccompanied by supportive international action to promote capital inflows and regional co-operation in promoting intraregional trade flows and transit facilities might result in large balance-of-payments deficits and inflationary pressures and thus frustrate national efforts. Similarly, international assistance should be accompanied by appropriate domestic polices to ensure its productive use.

34. In view of the above, the Meeting recommended the adoption of the following measures.

## 1. Changing the national economic policy environment

### (a) Macro-economic policies

35. A stable macro-economic environment, which it was important to achieve through equitable and efficient fiscal, monetary and commercial regimes, was essential for sustained growth with equity in least developed economies. While much of the inflationary pressures in those economies were caused by structural bottle-necks, it was necessary to pay greater attention to improved macro-economic management and to avoid large fiscal and balance-of-payments deficits, which created unsustainable burdens for the future. Those improvements, however, should be undertaken voluntarily with some flexibility in macro-economic management, through international and regional support measures, to enable the countries to pursue their basic goals of growth and poverty alleviation.

### (b) Efficiency in resource allocation and use

36. For the development of a more resilient economy, which would be a prerequisite for survival in an increasingly competitive decade, continuing efficiency in resource allocation and use would have to be emphasized. To pursue that objective, the least developed countries would have to continue their efforts to ensure better management at the public and private enterprise levels. Encouragement and acceleration of the existing trend towards decentralization, privatization and deregulation, within the feasible limits of national objectives and constraints faced by each country, would result in releasing new productive forces and entrepreneurial initiatives. At the same time, there was a need for continuing policy reforms in public enterprises to allow them greater financial autonomy and managerial discretion in investment, pricing and employment decisions.

### (c) Entrepreneurial development

37. Development of entrepreneurship, an important factor in the development process, was often lacking in the least developed countries. To encourage entrepreneurship development, measures should be adopted to provide increased access to capital, technical training, and business know-how, and to foster the growth of small and medium-scale industries as many independent entrepreneurs and managers had their origin in that type of activity.

/(d)

(d) Mobilizing domestic resources

38. The need for enhanced mobilization of domestic resources would become increasingly important in the 1990s. To achieve that objective, the range and quality of financial instruments would need to be greatly diversified and financial incentives to save would have to be improved considerably. Innovative approaches to the mobilization of rural savings and the simultaneous encouragement of productive capital formation at the local level, as exemplified by the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, should be explored. The development of capital markets should receive urgent attention in order not only to mobilize greater domestic resources but also to provide opportunities for wider equity participation and dispersal of ownership as well as for facilitating external resource inflows, which were increasingly assuming the form of non-concessional private flows, including portfolio and direct investment. In the effort to develop capital markets, appropriate measures should be adopted to discourage speculative investment in non-priority areas, without adversely affecting the mobilization of savings through worker remittances.

2. Regional co-operation

39. The increasing differentiation in economic performance and per capita incomes among the developing countries, especially those of the ESCAP region, provided considerable scope for regional co-operation to support the development of the least developed countries. The economic might of traditional developed donor countries, the dynamism of the newly industrializing economies and some of the South-East Asian economies, as well as the broad economic base of large diversified economies, could be used to develop intraregional trade, investments, technology and skill transfers to provide such support. In particular, the following measures were recommended:

(a) The flow of intraregional trade, capital and know-how within the region, which could contribute significantly to accelerating the development of the least developed countries of the ESCAP region in the next decade, should be increased;

(b) Preferential and differential treatment should be accorded to the region's least developed countries by its developed countries in their bilateral assistance programmes as well as in programmes of financial and

technical assistance channelled through multilateral agencies. Such treatment should, however, not adversely affect the region's other developing countries;

(c) Efforts should be made to improve the access of least developed country exports to markets in other developing countries (both within and outside the region) through the reduction of tariff and non-tariff barriers, as proposed under the GSTP (Global System of Trade Preferences) scheme, wherever applicable;

(d) Wherever feasible, the scope of the existing regional institutions and arrangements should be widened to cater for the special needs of the least developed countries of the region;

(e) Greater co-operation should be encouraged in managing natural resources and environmental questions, especially among neighbouring countries sharing the same water systems, mountain ranges or forest belts.

### 3. Need for a supportive international economic environment

40. Though the development efforts of the least developed countries themselves would be the most important element in any programme of action for the 1990s, the most important supportive contribution to such efforts would inevitably come from an improvement in the global economy. A number of recent developments in the world economy, however, had tended to involuntarily de-link the least developed economies from the world economic system and, therefore, required remedial action.

(a) Although global economic growth, especially in the developed countries, has revived in recent years, it is still relatively low to have a significant impact on the least developed countries. Slowing growth in demand in industrialized countries for some commodities produced by least developed countries, resulting from the reduction in the commodity intensity of manufactured output, new developing country entrance into the production of commodities, and rising supplies from developed countries resulting from subsidization of agriculture and adoption of new technologies, had considerably reduced the export earnings of many least developed countries. Increased growth of the world economy and suitable reduction in agricultural subsidies in developed market economies were measures that could prove supportive to the least developed countries, if their special needs were taken into account.

/(b)

(b) The overall macro-economic environment in the world economy remained subject to considerable uncertainty as large imbalances in developed economies continued, having an adverse impact on the availability and distribution of capital flows and on real interest rates. Consequently, both the availability and the cost of capital financing were affected, virtually crowding out the least developed countries from capital markets. Uncertainties in foreign exchange rates, interest rates and availability of capital made any medium-term planning extremely hazardous. Better policy co-ordination among developed market economies with a view to creating a more stable world economic environment could help the development of the least developed countries.

(c) While the least developed countries had undertaken structural adjustment programmes, both on their own and as part of policy packages designed by multilateral institutions within the framework of their structural adjustment lending programmes, sufficient account had not always been taken of the social and other non-economic costs of such programmes. Although some sensitivity on the issue had already developed, there was considerable room for putting a more recognizable human face on adjustment programmes. The blind zeal for privatization should not result in the curtailment of essential public services, such as those for education, health and housing. Adequate and timely financing by developed countries and multilateral institutions, along with a supportive external environment, were essential for enabling least developed countries to undertake structural adjustments without social costs and conflicts which were often borne by the weakest sections of the country.

(d) The risk of emergence of inward-looking trading group arrangements had the possibility of increasingly marginalizing the least developed countries with regard to the world economic system. The least developed countries were also generally too weak to take advantage of the trend towards globalization of production. There was, therefore, a need for successful completion of the Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations, for the adoption of a more accommodating attitude towards the least developed countries, and for preferential treatment to be given to those countries in assistance inflow and market access.

## B. Stimulating growth, meeting basic needs and promoting human resources development

41. The interrelations among those three basic issues of development strategy needed fuller recognition in the 1990s. While growth was an important objective and the failure of the Substantial New Programme of Action for the 1980s for the Least Developed Countries to achieve its growth target was grave, the inability to meet the basic needs and the poor record in human resources development were even more distressing and called for much greater attention. The view that growth was the primary goal and the other two objectives were secondary and had a uni-directional relationship with growth was flawed and had often become a self-fulfilling prophecy. Fulfilment of basic needs such as adequate nutrition, health, sanitation and housing not only were goals in themselves but also contributed significantly to productivity and growth. Similarly, human resources development, or investment in the health, nutrition and education of people, was not only an end in itself but the principal means for achieving development. At the same time, the efforts to enhance the entitlements and capabilities of people could not be undertaken without continued growth. There should, therefore, be a simultaneous, rather than sequential, effort to achieve the three basic strategic goals of development. The means of achieving them and the problems thereby encountered, however, varied considerably and required separate elaboration.

### 1. Stimulating growth

42. During the 1980s there had been a steady erosion of living standards in the least developed countries as a whole and only an imperceptible improvement in most of them. That situation could be reversed only by achieving considerably higher rates of growth in GDP. Some least developed countries in the ESCAP region had shown a capacity to attain or exceed the 7.2 per cent annual growth target envisaged in the Substantial New Programme of Action over limited time periods. However, their fragile economic structure could not withstand the frequent external shocks, of either a physical or a financial nature, throwing the economy into a downward spiral. Lack of resilience, rather than any inherent lack of capacity for economic management, was the root cause of their inability to attain sustained high rates of growth. It was therefore clear that efforts should be redoubled from developed and developing countries to reach the Substantial New Programme of Action target of growth of gross domestic product.

43. In order to achieve accelerated growth and self-reliance in the 1990s, a number of specific measures needed to be undertaken:

(a) Achieving economic diversification. In the uncertain economic environment likely to prevail in the 1990s, resilience and flexibility would be an imperative for survival and sustained growth for all developing countries. Success in achieving that would be directly related to the ability to diversify the economy, especially by reducing dependence on a few commodities.

(b) Increasing productivity in agriculture. Agriculture would continue to be the most important economic sector in most least developed countries, notwithstanding satisfactory growth in a number of countries. While agriculture remained crucial for providing employment and income, its importance also derived from ensuring food security to the population. Nevertheless, without a substantial rise in the productivity of agriculture, it would be impossible to sustain the increasing requirements of a growing population and to provide surpluses for the capital formation and exports needed to generate non-agricultural employment. At the same time, while increasing agricultural production, care would have to be taken to ensure that minimum damage was done to the environment, by avoiding an increase in area under cultivation, deforestation or overuse of chemicals.

In addition, a number of specific measures would have to be undertaken to raise agricultural productivity:

(i) Identification, development and dissemination of new agricultural technologies;

(ii) Improvements in the security of land tenure and the creation of environmental awareness and responsibility;

(iii) Development of rural infrastructure, including irrigation facilities;

(iv) Encouragement for the formation of decentralized decision-making institutions with effective participation of the rural poor.

(c) Accelerating industrial growth. Industrial growth remained at very low levels in most least developed countries and needed to be accelerated considerably. A basic constraint facing industrial development was the small size of the market in many least developed countries. A strategy of promoting complementary, simultaneous development of industry

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and agriculture could help overcome both purchasing power and input supply constraints. Increased efforts to penetrate the markets of neighbouring developing and developed countries, with the co-operation of the latter, could also help overcome market size constraints. Development of small-scale industries and encouragement of the private sector should form important elements in a policy package to accelerate industrial growth.

(d) Unlocking mineral wealth. Many least developed countries had not yet been able to fully explore, much less exploit, their mineral resources, either underground or offshore, largely owing to lack of resources and structural handicaps. To unlock those resources, they needed the development of human resources and technological skills, as well as large initial investments. Timely international assistance and regional co-operation to overcome those handicaps could greatly facilitate the tasks, as well as the careful assessment of the cultural and environmental impact.

(e) Developing the service sector. The development of the service sector, especially in the areas of tourism, banking, insurance and shipping, had great potential as a source of accelerating growth, increasing employment and augmenting foreign exchange earnings. However, it also required considerable infrastructural investment. With regard to tourism, concerns about environmental impact and adverse effects on local culture and traditions should be taken into account.

(f) Reducing the technological gap. To transform their economies rapidly, the least developed countries would need to pay more attention to the development and adaptation of technologies suited to their natural endowment, environment and human resources development capabilities. The adoption of information and bio-technologies should be given particular attention for raising the output of the service and agricultural sectors.

## 2. Meeting basic human needs

44. The failure to achieve growth targets under the Substantial New Programme of Action, was accentuated by the concomitant deterioration in the quality of life, as indicated, by certain social indicators, despite the serious efforts made by the least developed countries in that regard. It was therefore imperative that the goal of meeting the basic human needs be met explicitly through the provision of health, education, minimum nutritional standards, shelter, clothing and access to safe drinking water. The goal, however, could not be met by increasing only the output of goods and services required to meet them, but by increasing the access of people to those services on a sustained basis.

45. The following were some of the measures required to ensure the objective:

(a) Explicit consideration of removing poverty and promoting equity should be given in the orientation and design of development policies, programmes and projects, along with specific programmes of poverty alleviation and employment generation.

(b) The establishment of public services should be subject to the criteria, among others, of the affordability and accessibility for broad masses of the population, especially the poor.

(c) Government development expenditure should be increased on projects such as rural infrastructure, including rural roads, small-scale irrigation, water and sanitation facilities in rural and low-income urban areas, and public transport and low-income housing that were likely to benefit the poor.

(d) Affordable quality health services for all, particularly family planning and preventive services, should receive priority.

(e) Structural adjustment packages should ensure that public expenditure on and imports for meeting basic needs were not adversely affected.

3. Investing in human resources development

46. There was an urgent need to make increased investment in human resources development by making people the focus of all development activities. In that way, the least developed countries would be able to utilize one of their most important resources. Policies and programmes were urgently needed to increase investment in health, education and skills-development and protect the human resources base from unwarranted disparities in income.

47. The thrust in human resources development should complement that on meeting basic needs and should concentrate on access to and improvements in a wide range of educational and skills-development activities. In particular:

(a) Raising literacy levels and increasing primary school enrolments should be a basic objective in all least developed countries, with special attention paid to raising female literacy rates and enrolment levels and innovative efforts to removing impediments in the way of poor children attending schools, such as school lunch and milk programmes;

/(b)

(b) Strategies should give priority to reversing declines in the quality of education at all levels;

(c) Educational development should be pursued flexibly and should take advantage of revolutionary advances in communications and information technologies;

(d) Regional co-operation by exchange of students, academics, scientists and technologists should be promoted;

(e) Given the high share of current outlays in educational expenditure, especially in primary education, donors were urged to help finance recurrent local costs in priority projects.

## C. Increasing trade and transfer of resources

### 1. Increasing trade flows

48. Foreign trade could be an important catalyst for stimulating growth, attracting capital flows and facilitating technological transfer. However, the currently undiversified economies of the least developed countries were not well placed to take advantage of the increasing possibilities of growth and structural transformation that international trade could provide. In order to enable the least developed countries to take better advantage of growth in world trade, a number of measures, in addition to the diversification of their economies, as discussed in section B above, needed to be undertaken:

(a) Processing, marketing, distribution and competitiveness of primary commodity exports needed to be improved. In the case of the Pacific least developed countries, which depended on a few agricultural and semi-processed products, steps should be taken to replace senile plantations, remove management weaknesses and provide greater technical assistance. There was a need to stabilize the prices of primary products and strengthen and expand measures such as STABEX (System of stabilization of export earnings) and the Compensatory Financing Facility to smooth out the fluctuations suffered by the least developed countries in their export earnings.

(b) In conjunction with their efforts to diversify their economies, the least developed countries should undertake production for export and replace imports in an efficient manner.

/(c)

(c) The least developed countries should constantly assess the changes in demand patterns in the importing markets and endeavour to modify their exports by suitable changes in quantities, design, packaging and marketing products. The International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT was urged to provide trade intelligence and assistance to the exporters in the least developed countries to enable them to respond more effectively to changing tastes and preferences in distant markets. The national Governments should undertake measures to disseminate the information to exporters.

(d) In the initial stages of production for export, the least developed countries would require assured markets for their products. Both developed and developing countries could assist in increasing market access.

(i) Regional co-operation, particularly in the form of according preferential and differential treatment to the least developed countries of the region by the region's developed and developing countries, could play an important role in promoting the exports of the least developed countries. The existing regional institutions and arrangements should be expanded to meet the special trade requirements of the least developed countries of the region.

(ii) Possibilities for East-South co-operation should be explored with special emphasis on the study of new forms of economic ties emerging during the process of the creation of market-oriented economies in the USSR and other countries of Eastern Europe. Adequate attention should be given to the facilitation of dissemination of information on business possibilities in both the countries of Eastern Europe and the least developed countries of the ESCAP region, especially with regard to the promotion of the exports of the least developed countries to East European markets.

(iii) The Asian economies, particularly the newly industrializing economies and some members of ASEAN (Association of South-East Asian Nations), had achieved extraordinary success in increasing their share of world trade, diversifying their export base and developing complementarities among themselves. A rapidly changing international division of labour, based on changing real wage costs and skill requirements, could also benefit the least developed countries, especially through increased foreign direct investment from Japan and the newly industrializing economies.

/(iv)

(iv) Developed and developing countries urgently needed to reduce tariff and non-tariff barriers facing exports from the least developed countries. Those countries would benefit from, inter alia, duty-free access to the markets of developed countries under improved generalized system of preferences (GSP) schemes. Urgent action should be taken toward speedy implementation in favour of the least developed countries of all most-favoured-nation concessions made by the negotiating partners of the Uruguay Round.

2. Increasing transfer of resources

49. As pointed out in paragraph 40(c) above, the global environment for capital inflows to the least developed countries had deteriorated considerably. Therefore, urgent measures were needed to increase the transfer of resources to the least developed countries. In particular, the following recommendations were made:

(a) At the very least, the Substantial New Programme of Action target on official development assistance should be reaffirmed and attempts made by all developed countries to reach the target by the middle of the new decade.

(b) The multilateral institutions should be enabled to provide greater assistance to the least developed countries. The least developed countries, as defined by the United Nations General Assembly, should be recognized by the multilateral institutions for eligibility to be given special treatment in receiving assistance.

(c) In addition to increasing the quantum of official development assistance in real terms, the modalities of such flows would have to be improved to enhance their effectiveness and concessionality to reduce the debt burden of the least developed countries.

(d) Foreign direct investment should play a more significant role in the least developed countries. The catalytic role of official development assistance flows for infrastructural development in increasing the absorptive capacity of the least developed countries should also be recognized. At the same time, the least developed countries should provide increased incentives to attract foreign direct investment. In that context, developed and more advanced countries in the region with large current account surpluses had a special role to play in facilitating capital flows to the least developed countries, especially those of the ESCAP region.

/(e)

(e) It was highly desirable that trans-national corporations should support the efforts of the least developed countries to meet their basic needs and pursue the basic goals of economic growth.

(f) In regard to official development assistance debt, it was important that UNCTAD Trade and Development Board resolution 165 (S-IX) of 11 March 1978 on debt and development problems of developing countries should be implemented fully as soon as possible. Measures, including interest subsidy schemes and other new instruments to alleviate the burden of debt service obligations to the multilateral institutions, needed to be adopted. In that connection, it was pointed out that options and measures worked out at the Toronto Economic Summit in June 1988 and subsequent Paris Club provisions of debt relief should be extended to all the least developed countries to cover their growing debt to multilateral institutions.

## D. Environment and geograpical constraints

### 1. Environment

50. Environmental sustainability had emerged as an essential element of the development consensus for the 1990s. For the least developed countries, that added a new constraint to their development efforts. Their natural resource base was generally poor while rapid population growth in most countries and persistent poverty had made their environment even more fragile. However, it is necessary to pay attention and seek solutions to the environmental issues in conjunction with the challenges posed by population growth and poverty. In that regard, a number of wide-ranging measures needed to be undertaken:

(a) Immediate steps should be taken to develop a comprehensive national programme involving the protection, regeneration and management of the natural environment along with urgent steps to moderate population growth.

(b) Income-generating and poverty-focused programmes, with women playing a key role, were needed to protect and manage the natural environment, as they played a major role in activities affecting the environment.

(c) New legislation would be required to implement sustainable management of forest resources, impose ceilings on deforestation, establish protected areas, prohibit selectively polluting activities, and introduce a system of penalty and reward for damaging or protecting the environment.

/(d)

(d) Compensatory international assistance to minimize environmental damage would be required to assist affected countries.

2. Geographical constaints

51. Of the 11 least developed countries of the region, 9 were either land-locked or island economies, greatly hampering their efforts towards economic and social development. The following measures were recommended in order to reduce their isolation and increase the prospects for integrating them more closely with the international economy:

(a) In order to reduce the disadvantages associated with remoteness in the case of Pacific least developed countries, particularly for Kiribati and Tuvalu, adequate sea and air transport links, with both the main metropolitan markets and neighbouring island countries, needed to be developed through a co-ordinated programme, supported by national, regional and international measures. The Meeting recognized the difficult nature of the problem, and that effective solutions might well depend on the development of new and cost-effective technologies.

(b) The adoption of suitable measures to facilitate greater movement of goods and people through transit facilities, could greatly reduce the relative isolation of land-locked countries. The improvement of the physical infrastructure, in particular transport and communications, was vital for the movement of goods and services within the country as well as the expansion and development of the foreign trade sector. In order to alleviate the geographical handicap, the land-locked countries and their transit neighbours, in co-operation with each other, should make concerted efforts to simplify transit procedures and to improve international trade links in the 1990s, taking into account the needs and means of the land-locked least developed countries. In that connection, national, regional and international support measures were called for in developing additional road, railway and air links with the outside world and for the movement of goods and services within the country.

E. Arrangements for review and monitoring

52. The Meeting recognized the need for sustained, co-ordinated and effective follow-up and monitoring of the plan of action for the 1990s at the national, regional and international levels. In that regard it emphasized that the existing arrangements, in particular the UNDP round-table meetings and the World Bank consultative groups, should be further

improved and strengthened in order to, among other things, organize meetings for the pledging of international assistance to the least developed countries in achieving their national goals and priorities.

53. At the national level, the least developed countries should undertake review of the performance in various fields and at suitable intervals for the implementation of the plan of action for the 1990s. In that regard, the international community should provide necessary support to the least developed countries in their efforts.

54. The Meeting recommended that a clear link needed to be established between the national and global monitoring mechanisms in order to maintain consistency in the implementation of the new plan of action. If necessary, a standard set of criteria and indicators might be evolved for that purpose.

55. While UNCTAD would be responsible for the review, follow-up and monitoring of the plan of action for the 1990s at the global level, the Meeting recommended that the regional commissions should have similar responsibility at the regional level. In particular, it recommended that the Least Developed Countries Section of the ESCAP secretariat should be appropriately strengthened within available resources to enable it to carry out that process effectively in view of the large number and diversified nature of the least developed countries in the ESCAP region. The Meeting also stressed the importance of active participation of other organs in the United Nations system in that process.

## IV. ADOPTION OF THE REPORT

56. The Meeting adopted its report on 23 February 1990. It suggested the secretariat to forward the report to the UNCTAD secretariat in accordance with Commission resolution 271 (XLIV).

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